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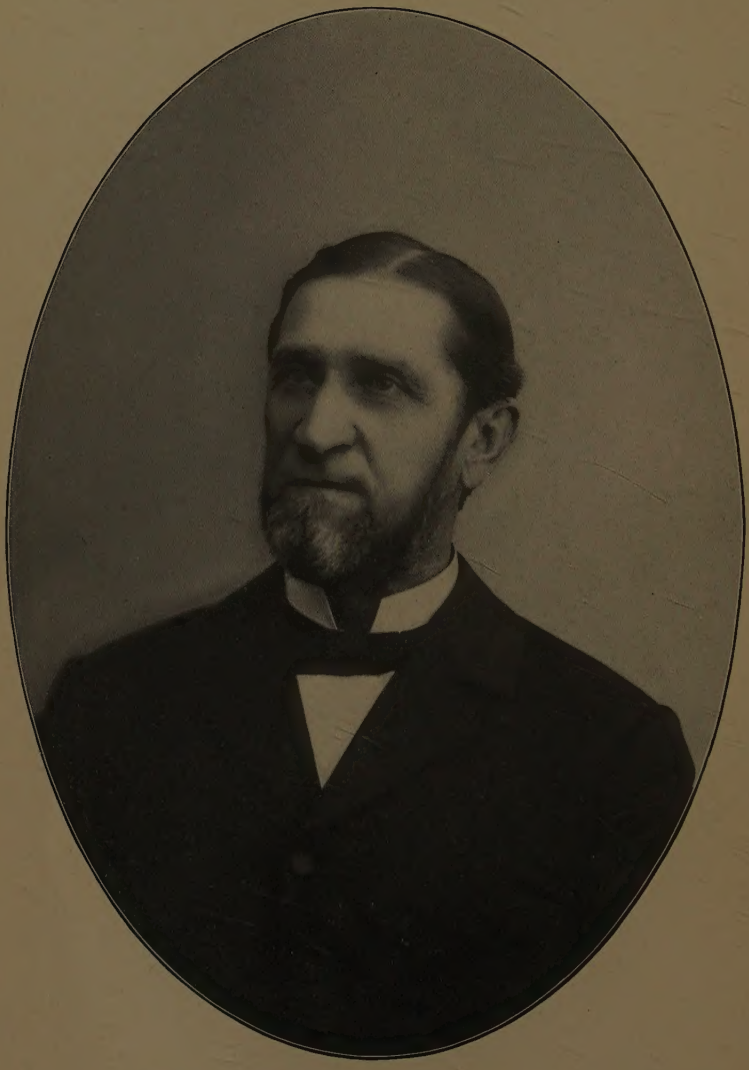

Timothy Nicholson

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTY-NINTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF DETROIT, MAY 28 — JUNE 3, 1902

EDITED BY

ISABEL C. BARROWS

BOSTON, MASS.: GEO. H. ELLIS CO., 272 CONGRESS STREET

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PREFACE.

The twenty-ninth annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Detroit, Mich., May, 28 to June 3, 1902, the second time that the Conference had met in that city, the first having been in 1875.

An unusual amount of space has been given to the discussions in the different sections, but in the compass of one volume it is impossible to report them all. Only those are included for which special arrangement was made with the respective committees.

The papers read before the sections have been printed, with few exceptions. In one case the manuscript was lost and never reached the editor's hands. Two or three papers which should have appeared in the body of the book were received in time only to be inserted in the Minutes and Discussions, but they are specially indexed in the Table of Contents.

The next meeting will be held in Atlanta, Ga., Mr. Robert W. de Forest, of New York, President.

NEW YORK, November, 1902.

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. MEMBERSHIP.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. OFFICERS.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. COMMITTEES.

The standing committee shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex officio*, and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day, for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of

meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex officio*, of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in, and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference and the Official Editor and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

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I.

President's Address.

A GLANCE AT THE PAST, A LOOK AT THE PRESENT, A VISION OF THE IMMEDIATE FUTURE.

BY TIMOTHY NICHOLSON.

At a recent sanitary conference in Manchester, England, a learned professor said: "Progress comes as the result of an ideal. Reformers see the mountain top before them a distant reality; and, though they may not attain the summit, their striving carries them some distance upward, and their successors may realize the ideal which they only saw distantly. The universal reign of peace, the prosperity of every fellow-countryman, are likewise ideals. Each man, in his own immediate circle can translate, in a measure, his ideal into the practical; and, as this is done, the world becomes that much better and nearer the ultimate goal of good." "One soweth, and another reapeth." "Others have labored, and ye are entered into their labors." So spake the divine Teacher to his disciples as he sat by Jacob's well. So has it ever been in the physical, mental, and spiritual world; and in no other way can there be permanent growth and progress. As *we* are reaping what others faithfully sowed, so must we sow bountifully and labor wisely for the next generation. While it is better to press on toward the goal than to dwell too much upon past achievements, a backward glance at what has already been accomplished should increase our faith and courage, and stimulate to greater exertion in the future to improve humanity. A poet has said: —

> We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths;
> In feelings, not in figures on a dial.
> We should count time by heart-throbs, when they beat

For God, for man, for duty. He most lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.
Life's but a means unto an end, that end
Beginning, mean, and end to all things,— God.

Young, in "Night Thoughts," exclaims: —

Oh, what a miracle to man is man!
How poor, how rich, how abject, how august,
How complicate, how wonderful, is man!
How passing wonder He who made him such,
Who centred in our make such strange extremes!
From different natures, marvellously mixt,
Connection exquisite of distant worlds!
Distinguished link in being's endless chain!
Midway from nothing to the Deity!
A beam ethereal, sullied, and absorbed:
Though sullied and dishonored, still divine.

Like other national associations, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has no fixed place for its annual meetings; and, with a single exception, no two consecutive annual meetings have been held in the same city.

In 1874, nine states,— namely, Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Kansas,— had created by law state boards of charities to inspect the various state and county institutions, investigate abuses, and report to the governor and legislature of their respective states, making such suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of these institutions as their wisdom and experience dictated. Naturally, the members of the various state boards were desirous of a better acquaintance with one another, feeling that it would be to their mutual profit and encouragement to meet and discuss the questions in which they had a common interest. For this purpose the boards of Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, met in Chicago in 1871. I do not know whether the papers and discussions of this meeting were published. Upon an invitation from the Massachusetts Board of State Charities extended to all these boards to meet in New York City, delegates from the boards of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Wisconsin, met in that city May 20, 1874. This was the first national conference of this body, held as a sectional meeting of the American Social Science Association. From twenty to fifty

persons attended. Letters were read from the boards of Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Kansas. The first subject considered was the duty of the states toward their insane poor, many of whom were then confined in jails and almshouses. The second topic considered was the laws of pauper settlement and the best mode of administering poor-law relief. The condition of the insane, especially of the criminal insane, was also considered. The report of the committee on these subjects, signed by eleven persons, three of whom were women, fills twenty pages, and the discussion, led by the late Dr. John Hall, five pages. During the first session a committee of three was appointed to propose a plan for the uniformity of statistics and a better co-operation among the boards of charities throughout the United States. F. B. Sanborn, who is now present, and who has attended nearly all the annual meetings since, was a member of that committee. The report of this committee is remarkably full, and the forms for collecting statistics very complete. The volume of the Proceedings of that first Conference contained only forty-eight pages. In contrast, the twenty-fifth, or silver, Conference, held in the same city in 1898, contained 544 pages.

The next Conference was held in 1875, in this delightful city of Detroit, in the council chamber of the city hall. The Conference was called to order by Hon. F. B. Sanborn. Hon. John J. Bagley, governor of the state, was called to the chair; and Dr. Hoyt, of New York, and Charles M. Crosswell, of Michigan, were appointed Secretaries. Governor Bagley's address on the "Public Institutions and Recent Legislation in Michigan" was worthy of the man and of the occasion. His description of the state institutions — the insane hospital at Kalamazoo, the asylum for the deaf, dumb, and blind at Flint, the penitentiary at Jackson, the intermediate prison at Ionia, the house of correction in Detroit, and last and greatest the State Public School at Coldwater, the most beneficent and the grandest work the state has ever done — clearly demonstrated that even then Michigan was abreast of any of the older states, and in some respects even in advance of them; and it still maintains that position. Six state boards were represented in this Conference: Massachusetts, by F. B. Sanborn and Dr. Nathan Allen; New York, by William P. Letchworth, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, and Dr. Edward C. Mann; Pennsylvania, by Dr. Luther; Wisconsin, by H. H. Giles, A. C. Parkinson, Dr. W. W. Read, and Andrew E. Elmore; Illinois,

by Dr. F. H. Wines; Michigan, by C. L. Walker, Charles M. Crosswell, Henry W. Lord, Z. R. Brockway, and Uzziel Putnam. Of these last I am informed only Z. R. Brockway survives.

Z. R. Brockway had for several years been superintendent of the Detroit house of correction; and he was recognized as authority, in theory and practice, of prison management. Eight years previous, in 1868, he wrote a paper for the Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the New York Prison Association, in which he boldly asserted that time sentences for criminals were wrong in principle, and that reformatory sentences should be substituted in their place, and that persons whose moral depravity makes them a public offence should be committed to proper organized institutions until they are cured. Again, at the first meeting of the National Prison Association in Cincinnati, in 1870, he read a paper, famous in the annals of American prison history, on the proper organization of a state prison system, in which he presented the theories as to the nature and needs of the criminal, which he subsequently had the privilege of successfully applying in the Elmira Reformatory for twenty-five years, from 1876 to 1901. As he attended the first meeting of the National Prison Association in Cincinnati, in 1870, he was also at the last, held in Kansas City in November, 1901, at which he read an admirable paper upon "The Prevention of Crime." We had hoped he would be able to attend this Conference.

As in New York, the Conference was held in connection with the general meeting of the American Social Science Association, as were the Conferences of 1876–7–8. Several members of that Association not officially connected with public charities attended the Conference, and contributed important papers and participated in the various discussions.

In addition to reports from the state boards concerning the condition of the work in their respective states, the subject of insanity and public charity, reformatories and young delinquents, medical charities, immigration, etc., were ably treated during the four sessions of the Conference by Dr. Allen, Miss Mary Carpenter, of England, and others. The admirable paper of Miss Carpenter upon "Neglected and Criminal Children of the United States" attracted much attention, and after the discussion of the paper the following resolutions offered by W. P. Letchworth and F. B. Sanborn were unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That the thanks of the Conference of Boards of Public Charities in the United States be given to Miss Mary Carpenter, of Bristol, England, for her valuable paper read at the Conference of Charities in Detroit, May 13, 1875, and that the Secretaries of the Conference be instructed to transmit this vote to Miss Carpenter.

Resolved, That this Conference recommends that the various state boards of charities use their influence to bring about such legislation in their respective states as shall cause dependent children to be removed from county poorhouses, city almshouses, and common jails, and from all association with adult paupers and criminals, and placed in families, reformatories, or other appropriate institutions.

Resolved, That this Conference also recommend that a systematic plan of visitation of dependent children, that have been placed in families, be adopted under legal sanction; and that officials having supervision over such children cause periodical reports to be made to them, by guardians, of their physical condition, moral training, and educational advantages and general well-being, and by thus manifesting a sympathy in their welfare strengthen self-respect and awaken a stronger pride of character in this unfortunate class.

I have been thus explicit and have introduced these resolutions to indicate the trend of thought of the men and women who founded this organization, some of whom still grace us with their presence and guide us by their experience and counsel.

The Conferences of 1876 and 1877 were held in Saratoga, N.Y. The former was welcomed by Governor Tilden, who was wisely interested in public charities, and who that year appointed Mrs. C. R. Lowell a member of the State Board of New York,— a position she held with marked distinction for many years.

In both Saratoga Conferences, Theodore Roosevelt, father of our distinguished President, took a very active part. He was at the time one of the most energetic members of the New York Board of Charities. His death occurred a few months after the Conference of 1877. George William Curtis said of him: "He seems to me to have had the convictions of a reformer, with the courtesy, courage, and omnipresent tact of the gentleman. He was neither spoiled by good fortune nor soured by zeal; and his death, therefore, diminishes the actual moral force of the community. Mr. Roosevelt was one of those men who are always in the minds of statesmen when great public trusts are created to be administered by the best citizens upon the highest principles."

In 1878 the fifth Conference was held in Cincinnati, still "under the umbrella," as our friend Sanborn expressed it, of the Social Sci-

ence Association. Hon. R. M. Bishop, governor of Ohio, welcomed the delegates; and the following extract from his address, shows something of his appreciation of their service: "This kindly greeting does not arise simply from the generous disposition and cordial hospitality of our citizens, but largely from the character of the mission you represent. You are here not only in the interest of charity,— the noblest of all virtues,— but you are here also in the interest of a wise, discriminating policy in the bestowal of charity. Your purpose is to unite science with love, to vindicate human sympathy at the bar of educated reason, to make religion and political economy co-operants in the alleviation of human suffering. You strike at the root of the matter, and seek to devise ways and means by which many of the *causes* of suffering may be removed, and thus practically illustrate the old proverb, "An ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure."

The Ohio Board of Charities was established in 1867, abolished in 1869, and reorganized in 1875; and in that Cincinnati Conference General Brinkerhoff and Rev. A. G. Byers, the distinguished father of our able and very efficient General Secretary, took an active part, the former being a leading member, and the latter the secretary of the Ohio State Board of Charities. General Brinkerhoff has missed only two annual meetings since 1878. Six state boards were represented at the meeting, and delegates from five other states were also present. The Conference continued for three days instead of two, and the volume of its Proceedings contains nearly two hundred pages.

As has been stated, hitherto the Conference had been held in connection with the American Social Science Association; but in 1879 it assembled in Chicago as a separate and independent organization. This was the most important of these gatherings. Not only were all the nine state boards of charity represented, but a considerable number of states having no such boards sent delegates, some of them being appointed by their respective governors. Officials from a large number of institutions and charity organizations of cities were in attendance, as were also the governors of Ohio, Wisconsin, and Illinois. The membership numbered 148, 39 of whom were women. Many valuable papers were read and discussed. General Walker, superintendent of the United States Census, was present for the express purpose, as he stated, of consultation and counsel in regard to

the best means of gathering statistics. It was decided that in future the scope of the Conference should be enlarged, so as to embrace prison management, and bring the officers engaged in that work more fully in accord with the organization which was afterwards called the Conference of Charities and Correction. General R. Brinkerhoff was elected President; and by resolution he was requested to present at the opening of the next year's session in Cleveland an address upon the work of the year, including legislation and administration. In this connection I must allude to another kindred organization, the National Prison Association, which first met in Cincinnati in 1870, upon the call of that American apostle of prison reform, Dr. E. C. Wines, of New York, the illustrious father of our distinguished friend, Dr. F. H. Wines. Rutherford B. Hayes, then governor of Ohio, presided. After a few years the Association lapsed, but was revived in 1883 at Saratoga, when ex-President Hayes was elected President; and he was annually re-elected until his death in 1893. The meetings of the Prison Association are still held annually. Many of its prominent members, including Dr. Henderson, the President, are also active members of this Conference. The National Conference, suffice it to say, steadily increased in members and in power and influence, as state after state created boards of state charity. The annual meetings have been held as follows: Cleveland, in 1880, when seventeen states and Canada were represented; Boston, 1881; Madison, in 1882; Louisville, in 1883; St. Louis, in 1884; Washington City, in 1885; St. Paul, in 1886; Omaha, in 1887; Buffalo, in 1888; San Francisco, in 1889; Baltimore, in 1890; Indianapolis, in 1891; Denver, in 1892; Chicago, in 1893; Nashville, in 1894; New Haven, in 1895; Grand Rapids, in 1896; Toronto, in 1897; New York, in 1898,— a very notable meeting, the twenty-fifth, or silver, anniversary, far the largest attendance and in other respects the most important session ever held.— Cincinnati, in 1899; Topeka, in 1900; and Washington City, in 1901, when we had reports from forty-seven states and territories and Canada, also from Cuba and Mexico; and now, after twenty-seven years, we are again in Detroit. All the Presidents previous to 1879, and six since then, have "fallen asleep." The others are still living, and at least nine are now present. The steady increase of important subjects led to the extension of time from two days and four sessions to six days and twelve sessions. As many as ten

years ago these were found insufficient, and sectional meetings were introduced, often two and sometimes three being held at the same hour; and on the programme for this year you will find provision for fourteen general sessions and nine section meetings. In the last Conference the proceedings of the reformatory section alone required a separate volume of 160 pages, which was elegantly printed at the Boys' Industrial School at Lancaster, Ohio. Instead of the few subjects considered by the earlier Conferences, more than twenty have claimed our attention in recent years.

There were eight boards of state charities in 1874; there are now twenty-seven. Twenty years ago Michigan, true to her leadership, held the first State Conference of Charities and Correction. In 1890 Ohio followed this good example. The next year Indiana and Minnesota organized state conferences, and other states since, until now there are at least twenty annual state conferences. Through the National and State Conferences the attention of the public was so forcibly called to the deplorable condition and abuses and pressing needs of the dependent, delinquent, and criminal classes that in several states intelligent legislation, liberal and reformatory, has been secured by which these conditions have been greatly improved, and generally with less cost to tax-payers.

Non-partisan boards for state institutions have eliminated politics from their management. By civil service competent and trained superintendents and other heads of institutions are not removed by a change of administration. The authority of the head to appoint and dismiss all subordinates in an institution secures efficiency in discipline and management. The indeterminate and parole laws, combined with the merit system and milder punishments of criminals, so far reform at least 80 per cent. of them that they obey the laws and keep out of prison. Under the former system of brutal punishment, 60 per cent., after being discharged, resumed their former criminal ways and were again imprisoned. Children brought up in almshouses and many of those in orphan homes became shiftless tramps and criminals. Now by means of state schools and state and county agents they are being placed in good homes, to be trained as upright, industrious citizens. The registration of all those receiving outdoor relief has greatly reduced expenses and lessened pauperism.

In reformatories for men and for delinquent boys and girls, trade

schools are organized, in which the inmates are taught useful employments, that they may become self-supporting when released. The insane are more comfortably provided for and are more kindly and scientifically treated than ever before. In an increasing number of insane hospitals, women physicians have the care of the female patients. The epileptics and feeble-minded have been removed from county infirmaries and jails, and placed in institutions specially provided for them.

These and other beneficent results have not been secured except by severe and long-continued struggles with principalities and powers,— political spoilsmen. So thoroughly was the doctrine "to the victor belong the spoils" intrenched in governors and legislators, members of Congress and county commissions, that continued and unflinching presentation of facts and figures from the rostrum and by the press was necessary to educate the intelligent voters of both parties until they demanded in several states non-partisan management of the state institutions, and in some instances the adoption of civil service based upon the merit system. In many states, however, the political spoilsmen are still glorying in their shame. "Charities" in commenting upon the act of one governor in foisting an untrained secretary upon the state board of charities for political reasons, justly says: "This unwarranted interference is such an evident abuse of official power as to deserve the criticism it is receiving from the better portion of the press of that state. Judged by its invariable fruits, that form of politics which seeks to exploit itself, at the cost of the charities of the state, is of the lowest and most abhorrent kind, seriously affecting as it does the care of the unfortunate wards of the state, and fully merits the reprobation of all good citizens."

While the state boards were thus engaged with the state and county institutions, with governors, legislatures, county commissioners, and township trustees, the numerous voluntary charity organizations were making marvellous progress in their multiplied fields of labor, especially in the scientific study and investigation of the dependent classes and in intelligent co-operation in efforts for their improvement. So much for the past and present. What of the future?

Cowper, after describing the evolution through centuries of the three-legged stool on which "immortal Alfred sat" to "the accomplished Sofa last," exclaims,—

"So slow
The growth of what is excellent!
So hard to attain perfection in this nether world."

So do we feel as to our work. We know that much has been accomplished, for which we thank God and take courage; but we also know the "golden age" is "on before." But we now occupy vantage-ground never before attained. This is the scientific age of our work. We are studying as never before the underlying causes of the evils the results of which we have been so long combating. So numerous, varied, and scientific are the present and prospective, social and legal forces that we should confidently expect immensely greater progress in the physical, mental, and moral elevation of the masses of our people. When in every state and in every county there shall be a non-partisan, advisory board of charities and corrections, composed of both men and women and serving without pecuniary compensation, their needful expenses being paid; when, in municipal elections and municipal government, partisan politics shall be ignored; when by compulsory school laws all our normal children shall receive at least a fair education; when the imbeciles, including feeble-minded women and epileptics, shall all be provided for in institutions, and so instructed as to become well-nigh self-supporting; when by properly administered indeterminate sentence and parole laws at least 80 per cent. of those sentenced to *all* our reformatories and state prisons shall be returned to society so far reformed as to become law-abiding citizens, and the *unreformed permanently retained* in confinement; when by means of juvenile courts and probation officers no more delinquent children shall be imprisoned in jails; when all the dependent children, who are sound in body and mind, are placed by state and county agents in good family homes and carefully supervised in these homes; when the crippled and deformed are collected in buildings adapted to their comfort; when county jails shall be abolished and district workhouses for minor offences established and controlled by the state; when all the insane shall be provided for in state institutions; when wife-beaters and wife-deserters shall be imprisoned at hard labor and the proceeds of their labor remitted to their families; when the good example of a few of our large railroads and other industrial corporations, in refusing to employ persons who use intoxicating liquors, shall become general;

when through the scientific instruction of schools of philanthropy, such as has just been organized by the Charity Organization Society of New York City, overseers of the poor and church societies and charity organizations shall cease to pauperize citizens by supplying relief without investigation,— when these and other similar reforms are adopted,— and by determined, united, persistent effort all of them *may* be secured during the next decade,— shall we not then *begin* at least the golden age of charity and correction? With decreasing egoism and increasing altruism, let us unitedly strive for this ideal, and thus glorify God by promoting "peace on earth and good will to men."

"Though we climb Fame's proudest height;
Though we sit on hills afar,
Where the thrones of triumph are;
Though all deepest mysteries be open to our sight,—
If we win not by that power
For the world another dower,
If this great humanity be not wiser for our gain,
We have lived our life in vain.

"Though through weary years we toil;
Though we gather all the gold
From the mines of wealth untold;
Though from farthest shores of ocean we have brought the spoil,—
What at the last is won,
If we hear not God's "Well done"?
If the world's want and sorrow be not lessened by our gain,
We have lived our life in vain.

"Though we be in heart and hand
Mighty with all foes to cope,
Rich in courage and in hope,
Fitted as strong laborers in the world to stand,—
If with these we right no wrong,
What avails it to be strong?
If we strengthen not the weak, raise not the bowed again,
We have lived our life in vain.

"To the giver shall be given:
If thou wouldst walk in light,
Make other spirits bright.
Who seeking for himself alone ever entered heaven?
In blessing, we are blest,
In labor find our rest.

If we bend not to the world's work, heart and hand and brain,
We have lived our life in vain.

"Selfishness is utter loss:
Life's most perfect joy and good,
Ah! how few have understood!
Only one hath proved it fully; and He died upon the cross,
Taking on himself the curse,
So to bless a universe.
If we follow not his footsteps, through the pathway straight and plain,
We have lived our life in vain."

Caroline Seymour.

II.

Conference Sermon.

CHARITY AND JUSTICE.

BY RIGHT REV. JOHN LANCASTER SPALDING.

The love of self is the radical passion of human nature. It is the love of life, and of that which constitutes the good of life; and it is strongest in those who are most alive, in whom the vital current is deepest and mightiest. It is the inner source of strength in high and heroic souls, whether they seek and utter themselves in word or in deed, whether they strive for fame or for power or for union with God through faith and devotion to truth and righteousness. Whatever the aim and the means, the end all men propose and follow is their own happiness, a more intense and enduring sense of their own life. Personality is enrooted in the love of self; and, the higher the person, the more completely does he identify himself with all that is other than himself. Savages, in their feeble attempts to think, consider things to be self-existent, each standing apart and independent; and hence the love of self is in them a selfish love. As they are incapable of perceiving that their relations to nature and to society are essential elements of their being, they imagine that the good of life for each one is separable from the general welfare. Hence they easily become false, cruel, treacherous, and revengeful. They lack humanity. They are the victims of instinct and impulse. They have the kind of social sense which is found in gregarious animals, but they are unable to ascend to the conception of the universal law which binds the whole race into a brotherhood. The degree in which individuals and societies rise above this separateness of childish and savage thought is a measure of the degree of their progress in religion and civilization. All advance is an ascent from the primitive and superficial self toward the true self

which is born of the union of the soul with truth, justice, and love. It is a process of self-estrangement, of self-denial, of self-abandonment. They alone enter the land of promise who quit the low and narrow house of their early thoughts and desires, and struggle with ceaseless effort and patience to reach the kingdom which is founded on the eternal principles of righteousness. They believe and know that peace, joy, and blessedness, which are the end to which the love of self points, can be attained only by those who seek and find the good of life in the service of the Father who is in heaven, and of his children who are on earth. Self-seeking is transformed into self-devotion. A little world of petty cares and sordid interests is abandoned, and the enduring world wherein alone souls are at home opens wide its portals to receive us. In isolation the individual is never great or impressive. To be so, he must identify himself with truth and justice, with beauty and love. He must feel that he lives and battles in the company of God and in that of the noble and good, in some cause which is not merely his own, but that of mankind.

He could never become man at all, were it not for the society and help of his fellows. The human child would perish at once, were it not received at birth into the arms of intelligence and love; and its prolonged infancy would issue in nothing higher than savagery, were it not fostered by beings in whom instinct has been superseded by reflection and the sense of responsibility. In Christendom the individual enters the world as the heir of all time. For him the race has suffered and groped and toiled through ages that have sunk into oblivion. For him countless generations have fashioned language — the social organ — into an instrument fitted to express all that he can feel or know. The clothes he wears, the home that shelters and makes him self-respecting, every implement he uses, every contrivance that ministers to his comfort and security, have been fashioned, in the process of unnumbered centuries, by the pains and privations, by the sufferings and deaths, of tribes and peoples to whose labors he gives no heed.

If he is born into a world where religion, science, and morality, law, order, and liberty, make it possible that he should lead a life of reverence, wisdom, and purity, should have rights and possessions which are defended by public opinion and the power of the combined strength of all, where his home is sacred, where his conscience

is respected, where opportunity for the exercise of every talent is given, he owes all this not in any way at all to himself, but to others. And, if in the midst of this world he himself is to have worth and significance, joy and peace, he must turn from himself, and seek a better self through devotion to his fellow-men, whether they be in his home or in his church or in his nation or anywhere on God's round earth. He can have no real importance unless he ally himself with truth and justice and love, the knowledge and practice of which are within his reach because he is a member of a social organism. He is not self-made: he is a product of all the forces which have been at work in the universe from the beginning. He partakes of what nature provides, and he gathers the fruits of the seeds that saints and sages and heroes have sown up and down the world from immemorial ages. He is made strong and enduring by the struggles and labors of the race to which he belongs.

For him the martyrs have died, for him the poets have sung, for him the patient, tireless investigators have revealed the secrets which have given to the mind control of the forces that lie in the heavens and in the earth. Mankind has lived for him: it is his duty to live for whomsoever he can help. His proper home is above nature in the domain of reason, in the realm of freedom, in the kingdom of righteousness, in the spiritual world where that which we communicate becomes doubly our own, where knowledge begets knowledge, where love kindles love, where charity burns the more, the more it becomes self-diffusive. A man cannot be wise or good or strong for himself alone. He is formed and confirmed by the virtues he imparts even more than by those he receives. If his heart is set on material things, he may gather them for himself, may grow hard and exclusive, ignoble and base; but, if his supreme desire is for the things of the soul, he must communicate the blessings he gains, or they will vanish. In the home, in the church, in the nation, the important thing for each one is the help he gives, the benefits he bestows. He who is not a source of faith, of courage, of joy for those about him, has no wellspring of divine life within himself. He must educate if he would be educated, he must ennoble if he would be made noble, he must diffuse religious thought and love if he would become religious.

Every worthy form of individual activity is altruistic. The money paid is never the equivalent of the work done; and whether the la-

borer be farmer or builder, physician or teacher, he must look beyond the price he gets to the good he does, must interfuse good will and the desire to be of help with all he does and with all he receives for what he does, or he will shrivel into something that appears to be alive, but is dead. It must be his object to realize himself, not chiefly in his primitive physical self with its material needs and sordid interests, but he must bend all his energies to rise from the low bed whereon nature has laid him to the sphere where God manifests himself as Truth and Love, as Beauty and Righteousness, as Life Everlasting. Then he shall find himself in accord with the things that are permanent, with the good that is absolute. Then shall he learn sympathy with all who live and are hard pressed and beset with doubts and temptations, who are overburdened, whose feet are caught in the meshes of sin, whose hands hang helpless because joy in work is denied them.

Then shall he forget altruism and awaken to love,— to the love that poised the heavens and holds the stars in place, that speaks to us when we look on flowers and ripening harvests and the faces of the fair and innocent, when we think of home and country and the graves of the dear ones who have fallen asleep,— to the love which drew the eternal Father from the infinite unseen to clothe himself with the flesh, to walk with his children, to die for them, that henceforth every soul might understand that love is the absolute fact behind, above, and beyond all that appears; that it is the charity of God,— yea, God himself. What is a way of believing and thinking may be made also a way of feeling and acting. A passionate devotion to the salvation and welfare of men is aroused in innumerable souls, who, smitten with a sacred enthusiasm, leave father and mother, and home and country, that they may become the servants of the outcast, the abandoned, the fallen, of all whom inevitable circumstance and pitiless law overwhelm and crush.

To this new mood and temper no condition, no state in which a human being may be placed, appears to be hopeless. The saving power of infinite love is infinite. When reason despairs, the heart still believes and hopes; and the best and the noblest are not they who calculate, but they who with divine confidence yield to the impulses which descend from worlds to which the understanding cannot rise. This is the power which moves and consecrates the lives of mothers and of all true lovers, of patriots and saints, of virgins

and martyrs. Life is not a balance sheet: it is a breathing of God, awakening souls to service and to love. When a man is prepared to live and to die for some good cause, which is all the world's, and not alone his own, he has become a dweller in realms which lie beyond the reach of the mere intellect. To these heights the life and teaching of Christ have lifted innumerable souls, enabling them to love and serve, not merely the beautiful, the brave, and the generous, but to love and serve those who have nothing amiable in themselves, who are stricken with poverty, vice, and disease, who distrust and hate us, who are our enemies and their own. His coming is like the coming of spring. The snows melt, the icy bands break, the waters leap and sing, the earth awakens from its death-like lethargy and clothes itself in many-tinted vesture, the young are joyful, and the old grow young again. So in the human world of faith and hope, of thought and conduct, of love and service, Christ unseals the fountains of sympathy, helpfulness, and mercy which lie in the heart of man, but which cruelty, greed, and tyranny had congealed. In the ancient world, patriotism, which was its special virtue, consecrated the instinct of hatred for the foreigner. The earth was divided among savages, barbarians, and civilized men whose moral code was founded on a philosophy of selfishness. Man's divine origin and destiny were forgotten, the sacred meaning and worth of life were ignored. The gods were not believed to take interest in human morality or welfare; and for the best of men there was no refuge from the ruin wrought by greed, lust, and tyranny, save in a kind of Stoic indifference and despair. The virtues of mildness, mercy, serviceableness, chastity, and lowly-mindedness were considered weaknesses and defects. When Christ embodied in his deeds and words the vital truth that God is a father, who verily loves his children, that he is all-holy, that righteousness is life, that only the pure in heart can know him, that they who hunger and thirst to do his will enter his kingdom, which is open to the meanest and most abandoned, if they but repent and have faith and charity, there was a revelation from heaven, the opening of a fountain of immortal life in time and in eternity.

Enthusiasm, devotion, and love have no real object, no meaning, no worth, if man's life be but an apparition, an exhalation from a charnel-house, a pathological growth, a mere dream of life in a universe essentially and eternally dead. One who believes not in God

must cherish a thousand lies to save himself from despair. How can he who beneath the universal appearance that lures him sees but the deception, the trickery, the vileness, the vanity, which it veils, have a great mind or a loving heart? But this is what he must see if in all and above all he sees not God. Now in Christ the eternal Father is made visible, and henceforth all may know that he is, and that he is love. The more we love one another, the more plainly is this truth revealed to us. Love is the vital element of holiness, the spring and secret of righteousness; and there is no blessedness except in living and serving in the spirit of Christ.

Whatever change time may have wrought in opinions and in social conditions, whatever progress may have been made in scientific knowledge, whatever new machinery, whatever hitherto unutilized forces, may have been placed at the disposition of man, it is still and must forever be true that nothing but the spirit of Christian love can give us the power rightly to cheer, console, strengthen, guide, uplift, illumine, and purify one another. The money man spends on his lusts and vices might abolish poverty and fill the world with beauty, but not unless it were administered by hands of intelligence and love. None of the many schemes to overcome the misery and degradation which spring from vice, crime, and pauperism, can attain the end without the ceaseless aid of right loving men and women. Love not only bears all things, hopes all things, but it rejoices with the truth, and is quick to discover how help may be given.

Let the lovers of God and of man stand forth, and let the first word we speak to them affirm that without knowledge and science and wisdom and skill they can do little, are more apt, with all their zeal and fervor, to do harm than good. They do not love truly who neglect any means whatever whereby they may make themselves more able to be of service. It is easy to give money, but love cannot be bought; and the giving of money is not sufficient proof of love. Men spend lavishly to gratify the animal passions, which are the destroyers of love.

They alone love who take a personal interest in those whom they would benefit, who re-enforce their failing lives, not with bread alone, but with sympathy and affection, with faith and courage, with joy and gladness. We feed domestic animals, but we are useless servants if we do nothing more than feed God's poor who are our brethren. We must put ourselves in their place. Like students, we must ac-

quaint ourselves with their origin and environments; like friends, we must enter into their failures and sorrows; like true men and women, we must consider that whatever afflicts them concerns us also. Love overcomes all, subdues all things to its own divine purposes. It makes use of the sciences and the arts, of institutions and mechanical contrivances, to prevent or cure disease, to mitigate suffering, to make the air and the earth wholesome, to construct and build, to irrigate and drain, to improve in all possible ways the conditions and environments of human life. We may not be able, like the apostles and early disciples, to work miracles; but centuries of Christian thought and endeavor have, as the Saviour foretold, given us the power to perform even greater wonders. Knowledge has increased the efficacy of faith. Science has widened the boundaries of the empire of love. The change which has taken place in our attitude toward the criminal is but an instance of a general transformation of opinion with regard to all who are bound by the chains of ignorance, vice, and poverty.

We do not, like the savage and the barbarian, deal with the violators of law in the spirit of retaliation and vindictiveness; nor do we think it enough to immure and render them harmless, but we hold it to be our duty to reform them. And above all, so far as this may be possible, we consider it a sacred obligation to do away with the causes which breed crime and misery. To do good to enemies is now recognized to be the duty of society not less than that of individuals. We have come to understand that the real criminal is often the social body itself rather than the man or woman it corrupts and then punishes. Here is an ascent into the world of reason, mercy, and righteousness, an unfolding of the divine purpose as made known by the Saviour, who revealed the sovereign nature of truth and love. His influence, more than all other causes, has lifted the multitude to a higher plane, where the spirit of sympathy and helpfulness breathes unhindered. We hold at least in theory, however we may fail in practice, that mankind are a family; that both the church and the state are a home, where all should be cherished; that, the greater the weakness and misfortune, the greater should be the care. We have abolished legalized slavery, and the better among us are urged as by a divine voice to think no sacrifice too great whereby the condition of multitudes of toilers may be made more tolerable, more hopeful. We recognize that the rights of man are the rights of woman also,

and slowly we are gaining insight into the truth that whatever is wrong for her is wrong for him. As it is our duty to protect children because they are weak and helpless, it is our duty to protect all who are weak and helpless. The young are by nature incapable of caring for themselves; and, therefore, the home, the church, and the state accept the responsibility of providing them with nourishment and nurture. The adult man and woman should not be weak or ignorant or vicious; and we feel that it is not their own fault chiefly, but the fault of the home, the church, and the state, if they are so. We would therefore make helplessness, ignorance, and vice impossible. Religion inspires love, confidence, and courage; and science lights up the way of life with the torch of knowledge. As disease is largely preventable, we believe that vice, pauperism, and crime are also preventable. The law of causation is universal; and, the cause being known, the finding of a remedy ought to lie within the reach of intelligence and love. Our progress consists largely in the discovery of remedies for ignorance and impotence. Quinine, drainage, and sanitation have made vast regions habitable where hitherto healthful life had been impossible. The discovery of the causes of many of the worst diseases has shown us how they may readily be prevented or cured. The knowledge of the causes of evil, whether physical or moral, necessarily leads to the inquiry how they may be suppressed or controlled. The cosmical and geographical conditions which interfere with the normal development of human endowments we can hardly hope greatly to modify. In the tropics the race is and probably will always be indolent, ignorant, weak, and sensual. Heredity, too, plays a great part in the destiny of each one. We are in mind as in body largely what we have assimilated or what heredity, which is the outcome of endless assimilations, makes us. They who are born with a taint in the blood, with perverted instincts and enfeebled wills, not only fall into vice more easily than others, but they are also more difficult to reclaim. If man shall ever learn to do for his own kind what breeding and training enable him to do for various strains of domestic animals, he will have discovered an effective means for preventing crime and misery. But what he calls his rights, which often are but his prejudices and passions, will probably continue to keep him from treating his own species with the wisdom with which he manages inferior creatures. Reckless and senseless marriages are an inexhaustible source of evil. Many of our people

enter into wedlock as thoughtlessly as they take a stroll or fall asleep; and the result is quarrels, contentions, divorces, and children reared in an atmosphere which blights their tender lives. Hence crime among the young is increasing far more rapidly than the population grows. So long as this poison fountain remains open, so long will vice and pauperism continue to breed degradation and wretchedness. Homes which are hells thwart the wisest efforts to reform abuses. They hinder the school, weaken the church, and undermine the social fabric. Our chaotic and lax marriage laws encourage and facilitate imprudent marriages, but the source of the evil lies deeper. Institutions, it has been said, are in the control of men, public opinion in that of women. Women decide how we shall build and furnish our houses, what we shall eat and wear, what we shall find beautiful and entertaining, where we shall live, what we shall read, whom we shall consider friend or foe, what beliefs or prejudices we shall hold, what religion we shall have. From them we learn our mother tongue, from them our notions of right and wrong, of propriety and justice. If they were more large-minded, more intelligent, more unselfish, more serious, more loving, three-fourths of the depravity and sin which make life a curse would disappear. The fountain-head of social good or evil, of vice and crime, or of honor and virtue, is in the home; and the wife and the mother make or unmake the home. Whatever view we may take as to whether man or woman was the most guilty primal offender, woman bears the greater responsibility for the wrongs and miseries which afflict and oppress the modern world, since the force of public opinion, which is in her keeping, is mightier than riches and armies and laws. More than any age since the beginning of time we have given opportunity to woman, have placed her in the seat of influence and power; and shall she prove false or frail or ungrateful, traitorous to the vast confidence which all that is noblest and most chivalrous in man has led him to repose in her? Doubtless her increasing dominion has helped to arouse in our public life greater sympathy and tenderness, a more complete revulsion from cruelty, whether to man or beast. But more than pity we need justice, which is the first and greatest charity. The most grievous injustice which oppresses us, of which the weak and the poor, the laborers and their wives and children, are the chief victims, has its source in the political corruption which taints our whole public life, and more especially the conduct of our municipal affairs. It

not only stamps upon our name a brand of infamy in the eyes of foreign nations: it disheartens the best among us, and makes reform seem impossible. It not only impoverishes, but it disheartens and dechristianizes the laboring populations of our cities. It is the foe of civilization, of religion, of morality, of God and of man. It thrives in the mephitic air of saloons and brothels and gambling hells. It makes the rich its accomplices, and compels the respectable to connive at its iniquities and infamies. It perverts the public conscience, it destroys the sense of responsibility, it renders efforts at reform abortive. In the presence of this moral plague even the wisest and the bravest are bewildered and discouraged. No subject is more worthy of the attention of those who are interested in the improvement of social life and conditions. Legislation can accomplish little unless it is supported by a more humane, a more enlightened, a more Christian public opinion. Here, again, therefore, we need the assistance of noble-minded and educated women. If in the home, in the school, and in the church, where woman's influence is potent, if not paramount, the sentiment that corrupt politicians are more criminal than convicts be awakened and fostered, good will have been done. Were it possible that the daily press should take a sincere and serious interest in whatever concerns the public morals, what a beneficent power it might exert! But this cannot be hoped for while the newspaper continues to be chiefly a commercial enterprise; for, when the primary consideration is pecuniary profit, it will be deemed proper to publish whatever may excite curiosity, even though it pander to morbid cravings and prurient propensities. In the actual conditions the machinery and institutions created to deal with the violators of the laws are, in a large measure, the agencies whereby vice and crime are produced and diffused. The delinquents who are incarcerated are chiefly the poor, who, had they money to pay the fines, would escape imprisonment. The heaviest punishment is inflicted on the most helpless, and frequently on the least guilty; and thus the morally weak, the victims of unfortunate environments, are degraded, hardened, and made habitual offenders. Nearly one-half of the several millions annually arrested become chronic criminals. In the face of the theory that punishment should be reformatory and preventive, the fact remains that in our hands it is still largely a cause of corruption and of the spread of vice. Our city prisons and station-houses are often nurseries of crime, and

this may be affirmed also of many of our county jails and poor-houses. A recognized authority on this subject has said that, if there is an iniquity in the land to-day, it is the county jail system; that there is no greater iniquity in the world than the jail system of the United States. But the discussion of this and analogous questions would carry us beyond the limits assigned to an address like the present. It is enough to have called attention to the fact that it is the part of wisdom to refuse to yield unreservedly to our American spirit of optimism. All past ages, when compared with our own, were, in a sense, ages of ignorance; and there may be reasons for thinking that the man of the future will place our century in the same category. A dark age certainly it shall be called when considered from the point of view of conduct, when character is held to be the only sufficient test of enlightenment. The immature and the degenerate prefer pleasure to virtue and power, and they who prefer money to truth and love are also immature or degenerate. Greed not less than sensuality marks epochs in which all things are verging toward ruin. We are at present under the tyrannous sway of the spirit of commercialism and expansion, and our very thought is made subservient to the ideal of vulgar success; but they who have best insight, have a fine scorn of current opinion. They are able to do without its approval and they end by receiving it.

Emerson says that America is God's great charity to the race; but true religion, working with the added power which science gives, is greater than America, and will purify, ennoble, and transform our life into some likeness to the divine ideals which as yet we but simply discern. We have already learned that a man's chief value does not lie in his ability to conquer with sword and shell, and we are coming to understand that it lies just as little in his ability to manipulate machinery or to get money.

Comte thinks that Christianity is the consecration of egoism; and it is a fact that it regards primarily the individual, and asserts the supreme worth of personality. But it also insists that the individual can rightly develop and find himself only in devoting his thought and life to the love and service of God and his fellow-man. It would found on earth a kingdom of heaven in which obedience to the will of the eternal Father, which is good will to man, shall be an all-controlling constitutional principle and law, and beneficence the universal means of personal and social advancement. We must

be benefactors, that we may become able to love our fellows; for, if we incline to hate those whom we wrong, more surely are we drawn to love those to whom we do good. They who live with whatsoever things are true, just, gracious, pure, and amiable, continue to grow in mental and moral power; and the good of life lies in the mental and moral dispositions which a spiritual faith and disinterested conduct create and foster within us. As matter is but life's setting, not its substance, so, if we would go to the succor of those who fail in right living, we must give them our interest, sympathy, confidence, and affection more than our money. The special vice of the thriftless and delinquent is heedlessness and recklessness. We must train them to forethought, attention, and consideration; and personal influence, not almsgiving, is the proper means whereby this may be accomplished. If we would save them, we must save them from themselves. The purest charity consists in doing the spiritual rather than in doing the corporal works of mercy, since the essential good is the good of the soul. Let us have confidence in whatever increases the power of the soul; confidence, therefore, in the virtues of religion, which are faith, hope, and love; confidence in knowledge, science, freedom, and labor, persuaded that riches are good only when they are the possessions of the wise and good. It is easier to be generous than to be just. The generous win approval, while the just are often misunderstood and suspected of lack of heart. The poor love the poor because they give their thought and time to one another. They do not love the rich because the rich give them only money. Mere advice has little efficacy, for what we all need in nearly all situations is not so much a clearer view of right as a more fervent desire, a more determined will, to do right; and this advice cannot supply. No system of dogma or morals, however much it be preached, can regenerate the world. If men are to be converted and transformed, they must be brought close to Christ himself, must learn to know and love him, as Saint John and Saint Luke, Saint Francis and Saint Vincent de Paul, knew and loved him. They must be brought to believe and feel that, as he is one with the Father, so are we all verily God's children. If reason alone controlled us, the world would be a waste. If the universe of metaphysics and of science were not an abstraction, it would be a hell, where faith, hope, and love would become impossible; for they are nourished and kept alive, not by specu-

lation and research, but by unselfish service, generous deeds, and heroic endeavor.

Among the ancients the unfortunate were held to be accursed, hateful to the divinities, and consequently without title to the pity of men. In nothing has Christ wrought a more radical change than in the world's attitude toward the weak and heavy-laden. He withstood the superstition and mercilessness to which centuries had given a kind of religious sanction, and taught by word and deed that the more sinful, the more ignorant, the more abandoned our fellows are, the greater their claim on our attention and service. His life and doctrines have produced a mighty and beneficent revolution in their behalf; and yet much of the old hardness and injustice still survives both in society and in innumerable individuals who call themselves followers of the all-loving and all-helpful Saviour. What multitudes are there not who pass by and ignore the misery and suffering they cannot but see, who despise the poverty-stricken, who are hard and bitter toward the erring! How many who imagine they serve God by hating and maligning one another, who are hindrances to the spread of the kingdom for whose coming they pray! As when we look in a mirror we try to see ourselves in a favorable light, so, when by introspection we attempt to get a glimpse of our inner being, we instinctively take the points of view which best reveal our qualities and hide our defects. If we should strive honestly to see ourselves as we are, self-complacency would quickly die within us.

If we were true Christians, we should be able to labor for our fellows with such confidence and enthusiasm that nor baseness, nor ingratitude, nor faithlessness, nor apostasy from light and love of however many of those we seek to help would have power to cool our ardor or diminish our zeal. Though the world about us should appear to crave for nothing but money and sensation, we would none the less dedicate whatever of ability God has given us to redeem our brothers from themselves; and, if in the end we should have accomplished nothing, we should at least have escaped an ignoble life.

The purest pleasure is to give pleasure; and the highest glory belongs to those who labor earnestly, both by thinking and by doing, to make truth, justice, and love prevail. The universe was made for each one of us, and for each one the world will be fair and pleasant in the degree in which he strives to make it so for others. It is not

possible to respect one's self and to make no sacrifice for one's fellow-men. In coming closer to one another to help those who need help, we shall make ourselves more capable of seeing and confessing the truth which the life and work and words of Christ reveal.

What is true of us as individual men and women applies with equal force to our national life. The ends to which as a people we are called to devote ourselves are religion, education, justice, and charity. If we fail in this, wealth and numbers and the conquest of distant lands will have no power to save us from ruin and shame. Nothing but a civilization resting on a basis of righteousness and morality can make popular government permanent. If we are to look, not to the triumphs of the moment, but to lasting results, for which the whole world shall be grateful, we must trust to the largest thought and the purest love; for, so surely as God is, so surely are they destined to prevail. Tyranny is the foe of liberty, greed of justice, brute force of mercy and goodness; and wars, which spring from the barbarous passion for conquest, from covetousness, from the savage's delight in victory won by cunning and physical strength, pervert judgment, destroy right feeling, and foster the vices which weaken, harden, and blind the people and lead the way to destruction. Unless we remain sensitive to moral distinctions, unless we prefer justice and mercy to dominion over the kingdoms of the earth, we shall enter the open ways along which the republics and empires of the past have rushed to shame and destruction. If, then, we love America, if we believe in the brotherhood of mankind, in equal opportunity and freedom for all of God's children, let us turn from dehumanizing greed, from vain-glory and pride, to follow after truth and justice and love.

III.

Reports from States.

ALABAMA.

JULIA S. TUTWILER, LIVINGSTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of Alabama meets only biennially. Consequently there has been since our last report no law enacted affecting the status of our criminal population. There has been a constitutional convention, and a new constitution has been framed; but, as all measures concerning our criminality are statutory, and not constitutional, the new constitution makes no changes in this respect. So perhaps my report may be likened to that memorable chapter in the History of Ireland, on "Snakes": "There are no snakes at all on the island."

However, there are many serpents still in our state, although nothing new has been done to banish them during this past year. The same beneficent institutions which we have before reported are still at work. Our Reformatory for White Boys at East Lake has 50 inmates, and continues to accomplish great good. The state institutions for the insane, the deaf-mutes, and the blind, are kept as state institutions should be. Our prison house and county jails are a disgrace to civilization. We have still no reformatory for colored children; and they are, as heretofore, herded with adult criminals. "How long, O Lord, how long?"

An Old Ladies' Home has been recently established in Mobile. It is intended for those who feel most keenly the brunt of poverty, because their past lives have been made comfortable by competence. The building and grounds have been entirely paid for.

ALASKA.

SHELDON JACKSON, WASHINGTON, D.C., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Alaska, as in the past, is without organization. We have no legislature, no representative in Congress, no civil divisions such as

townships and counties, are without roads and public conveyances, with the larger settlements oftentimes hundreds of miles from each other.

Criminals confined and sentenced for a longer time than one year are sent to the government prison on McNeil's Island, near Steilacoom, Wash. Those sentenced for a less period are kept in the various district jails, the principal one of which is at Sitka, where there are about 55 prisoners.

The insane (white men) are taken to the Insane Asylum of Oregon by an arrangement between the authorities of that institution and the Secretary of the Interior. 9 persons have been sent there to date, 1 of whom has died and 1 discharged as cured.

In the care of destitute orphan children, nothing has been done by the government, but considerable is being done by the following religious denominations: the Swedish Evangelical Union, the Norwegian Lutheran Synod, the Episcopalian, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Moravian, and Friends, all of which have established homes where native orphan children are taken, fed, clothed, taught, trained, and cared for.

CALIFORNIA.

MISS KATHERINE C. FELTON, SAN FRANCISCO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the legislature this year, and, of course, no new laws enacted. The policy of the governor of the state has been one of rigid economy with regard to all state institutions. Dr. A. E. Osborne, the efficient head of the State Home for the Feeble-minded, was deposed by the governor; and it was the general feeling that the action was governed purely by political reasons. The loss of Dr. Osborne was a serious one to the home, to which his intelligent devotion and energy had been of inestimable benefit.

The second annual session of the State Conference of Charities and Correction was held in San Francisco in February last. Dr. Samuel G. Smith, of Minnesota, and Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, of Chicago, were the guests and principal speakers of the occasion. A very strong legislative committee, representing all sections of the

state, was appointed by the conference; and this committee will have especial charge of the preparation of bills for introduction during the session of the legislature next winter. The most important measure will be one for an advisory state board of charities and one for the establishment of a juvenile court.

In San Francisco there has been inaugurated this spring a movement designed to eliminate fraudulent and ineffective enterprises and organizations soliciting money from the public in the name of charity. The movement had its origin with the Merchants' Association of the city, which had been for some time considering the question of how to control in a measure the distribution of the large sum of money given by them for benevolent purposes. As a result, a representative body has been appointed by the Merchants' Association and the Associated Charities jointly, known as the Charities Indorsement Committee of San Francisco. This committee receives applications from those charitable organizations desiring its indorsement; and if, on investigation, they are found to come up to the standard set, a card bearing the desired indorsement for a specified length of time and for a definite sum of money is issued to the applying society. Some five hundred firms, members of the Merchants' Association, have agreed to the general policy of giving no contributions to solicitors for any organization not bearing this card. The investigations of the societies applying for indorsement are conducted by the office force of the Associated Charities. The committee, after a careful study of the facts and evidence, gives or withholds the indorsement according to its judgment.

COLORADO.

C. L. STONAKER, DENVER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Colorado legislature meets biennially, the next session opening in January, 1903.

Associated charity organizations have been established during the year in Greeley, Victor, Cañon City, Fort Collins, Boulder, and Florence. As a result of the recent state conference held in Cripple Creek, preliminary steps have been taken to establish an associated charities society to cover the entire district, having a population of about 40,000 people.

Private charitable organizations have been formed during the year as follows: the Denver Emergency Hospital Association; the Denver Day Nursery; the Denver Maternity Hospital; the Sacred Heart Orphanage by the Sisters of St. Francis, in Pueblo; the Cherry-tree Home Orphanage, upon the Salvation Army farm colony at Amity, Prowers County.

The Denver Maternity Hospital Association includes in its purposes the care of women and treatment of their diseases; but assistance is given to worthy poor and instruction regarding the care of young children, domestic hygiene, and sanitation. A training school for nurses is to be included in the work.

The question of the treatment of tuberculosis and the care of patients suffering with this disease is continually agitated in this state; and small sanatoriums are being established at different points, one of the most interesting of which is a ranch sanatorium near Colorado Springs.

An interesting phase of work in this state at this time is the strong effort that is making in the larger communities regarding truancy and the treatment of juvenile delinquents under arrest. The judges of the county courts have adopted the general policy of probation to all first offenders, requiring weekly, semi-weekly, or monthly reports in person, accompanied by parents, and a showing from the public school-teachers of regular attendance at school. Truant officers are employed in nearly all our large cities, who work in conjunction with the judges; and a personal consideration is given to each case. The result so far shows an increased and improved public sentiment, with remarkable percentages in public school attendance.

The state penitentiary at Cañon City has at present a population of 580. The prisoners are sentenced under the indeterminate sentence plan, carrying maximum and minimum terms fixed by the court in each case. Paroles are granted upon completion of the minimum term under rules and regulations adopted by the governor, who signs all paroles. The result of two years' trial of the indeterminate sentence plan with parole has proved very satisfactory, and here is little opposition to this method by the public or the courts. In fact, a number of the courts are going further, and are suspending sentences without authority of law; but in such cases the courts are upheld by public sentiment.

The State Reformatory at Buena Vista has an average population

of one hundred, committed under the straight indeterminate sentence plan without minimum terms. Unfortunately, too many habitual criminals are sentenced to the Reformatory by the courts of this state.

The vicious, including tramps, roving criminals, and the violators of city ordinances, are committed under vagrancy acts to short terms without labor, and are urged to "move on" at the earliest possible moment. A large proportion of our criminals incarcerated in jails and prisons are not residents of the state, but belong to the roving class.

Juveniles are committed for truancy as well as for offences against the laws to the State Industrial School at Golden and to the State Industrial School for Girls at Morrison, upon indeterminate sentences. There are in custody at this time 200 boys and 60 girls.

County homes (almshouses) are established in only a few of the counties of this state, and in a number of cases these homes are primarily hospitals for the indigent sick. The State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home has a population of 135; and there are about 300, average number, of aged and infirm cared for in county homes in the state. Outdoor relief is given as a temporary expedient, and individual cases are cared for by boarding in private families.

Destitute children are committed under the laws to the State Home for Dependent and Neglected Children, whence they are placed in private families under state supervision. The temporary home has an average population of 75.

The Children's Home Society seeks out destitute children not brought before the county officials, and places them in homes. There are several private orphanages in the city of Denver, and one in each of four other towns, where children are temporarily housed and cared for, although but little placing-out is done from private orphanages.

Private hospitals exist in the principal centres of population, where charity cases are cared for; and a number of counties have established in recent years county hospitals. Teller County is just completing a model county hospital in Cripple Creek, which will serve in the dual capacity of hospital and infirmary for the aged.

All the blind and deaf are cared for and educated at the State School for Deaf and Blind at Colorado Springs, the present population being 154.

Several attempts have been made to secure a census of the feeble-minded children of Colorado, with meagre results, not over 100 having been reported in the state. A private school for the training of the feeble-minded is in operation in Pueblo, under the advice and counsel of the State Board of Charities and Correction; and a number of dependent children are being trained there at the expense of the counties from which they were sent, under the new act providing for private training of feeble-minded at county expense.

No increased accommodations have been secured at the State Hospital for Insane at Pueblo, which holds a steady population of 500 without overcrowding. Patients committed by the courts who cannot be received at the state hospital are cared for temporarily in a private hospital in Pueblo at county expense, an average of 75 patients being thus cared for. Arapahoe County has a detention hospital for the insane, recently completed, having a population of 150 patients. Insane patients are not permitted to remain in jails, and only a few are allowed to remain in county homes pending commitment to the state hospital.

CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, WATERBURY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Several matters of legislation in the fields of charity and correction were reported a year ago as pending in the legislature of 1901, which at that time had not acted upon them. Of these matters the following were passed, and became laws.

An act providing for the application of indeterminate sentences for persons sentenced to the state prison, otherwise than for life or under sentence of execution. The court imposing the sentence establishes a minimum term of not less than one year and a maximum term not longer than the maximum term of imprisonment prescribed by law as a penalty for the offence in question. After imprisonment for not less than the minimum term, release on parole may be granted by a majority of the board of directors and the warden of the prison, and absolute discharge may be given to a paroled prisoner when the board are convinced that he will lead an orderly life. As the minimum term of one year has not yet expired since the law went into effect, it is too early to note its practical operation; but it

is believed that the measure will prove very valuable in encouraging prisoners to a practical reformation.

An act was passed providing that no boy under ten years of age shall be committed to the Connecticut School for Boys except upon conviction of an offence for which the punishment is imprisonment in the state prison. This measure will prevent the commitment of very young boys to the school for slight offences, as has occurred several times in the past.

An appropriation of $25,000 was granted to the Hartford Hospital for the erection of a separate department for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis. Additional funds were raised for the purpose; and the new hospital, situated in a healthful location on Cedar Mountain, will be ready for use at an early date.

In regard to dependent and neglected children committed to county temporary homes, power has been given to the courts that commit the children to revoke an order of commitment at any time when it is found that the cause for which a child was committed no longer exists.

Provision was also made to compel either parent of a child committed to a county temporary home, who has sufficient pecuniary ability, to contribute such weekly sum as may be agreed upon toward the support of the child.

The limit of age until which boys may be retained under the charge of the county temporary homes was reduced from eighteen to sixteen years; and provision was made to maintain, at the expense of the state, any child transferred by a county home board of management to a private family or chartered orphan asylum.

An act was passed permitting any two adjoining towns to unite for the support of their paupers in an almshouse or other place,— a broadening of the former law, which required that all paupers should be supported within the home town.

Among the more important measures relating to the criminal and dependent classes which were defeated in the legislature of 1901 were the bills providing for a system of probation for persons convicted of minor offences; for the introduction of whipping as a penalty for such offences as assaults, wife-beating, etc.; for the establishment of a state reformatory; for the employment on the public highways of prisoners convicted of jail offences; for the transfer of the cost of support of children committed to the county tempo-

rary homes from the state, where it now rests, to the towns from which the children are committed; and for the commitment and support at state expense of dependent and neglected children in private orphan asylums.

The hospital for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis, already mentioned, is the only new institution established during the year. The new buildings at the state prison, including the congregate dining-room, new cell block, and department for women, are now all in successful operation, and add greatly to the convenience and efficiency of the institution.

Work has been delayed upon the congregate dining-room building at the Hospital for the Insane, Middletown; but it will probably be completed before long. A substantial building for the classes in industrial training has been added at the American School for the Deaf in Hartford.

The average number of inmates present in the state prison at Wethersfield during the year was 490. The jails of the eight counties of the state contained an average of about 1,000 inmates, short term offenders and those bound over for trial. Total number of criminals, 1,490. Ratio, 1,640 to a million of population.

The average number of inmates during the year at the Connecticut School for Boys at Meriden was 426. The average number in the Industrial School for Girls at Middletown was 260. Total insubordinates, 686. Ratio, 755 to a million of population.

Almshouses are maintained in 89 of the 168 towns in the state, and shelter the dependent poor of all ages, except children between four and eighteen years. Total number of inmates during the year about 3,000, besides about 350 persons cared for in private homes for the aged. Total, 3,350. Ratio, 3,690 to a million. The total number of persons assisted by the towns with outdoor relief was about 15,000.

A temporary home is provided in each of the eight counties for the care of dependent and neglected children between the ages of four and sixteen for boys and four and eighteen for girls, until suitable family homes can be found for them. The average number in the county homes was 716. Private asylums and orphans' homes cared for about 1,200 children during the year. Total, 1,916. Ratio, 2,110 to a million.

The sick and injured poor are cared for in a number of hospitals

at the expense of the towns that send them, and of the state, which grants appropriations for most of the hospitals. Fitch's Home for Soldiers at Noroton had an average of 518 inmates.

The state had about 65 blind beneficiaries during the year, of whom about 15 were supported at the Perkins Institution for the Blind, South Boston, and 50 at the Kindergarten and Industrial Home for the Blind in Hartford. Ratio, 72 to a million.

The state supported last year 125 deaf pupils, of whom 91 were at the American School for the Deaf at Hartford, and 34 at the Mystic Oral School. Ratio, 138 to a million.

Feeble-minded children are cared for and instructed, at state expense, at the Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville. Average number, 180. Ratio, 198 to a million.

The Connecticut Hospital for the Insane at Middletown contained an average of 2,115 inmates during the year. The Retreat for the Insane at Hartford had an average of 160 patients. In eleven private sanatoria for mental diseases there was an average of 280 patients; and among the town poor there were 275 cases reported, chiefly of a chronic nature. Total, 2,830. Ratio, 3,117 to a million.

The cost to the state for the delinquent, defective, and dependent classes for the year ending Sept. 30, 1901, was: —

For maintenance	$681,034.00
For buildings	142,000.00
	$823,034.00
Cost to the towns	775,480.00
Total	$1,598,514.00

DELAWARE.

MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, WILMINGTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

(*Report made by M. A. T. Clark, Superintendent Associated Charities.*)

The Delaware legislature meets biennially. This being the intervening year, there is no legislation to report.

The most important event since the last report is the completion of the Newcastle County Workhouse, managed by a board of

trustees appointed by the court. All classes of criminals, long term, short term, and persons in default of bail, are confined in this institution. Employment, classification, and a library are hopeful features toward the reformation of the criminals. Prisoners all eat at tables in a bright, cheerful dining-room.

A large and commodious annex, with improved facilities, has been added to the Delaware Hospital, almost equal in capacity to the original building. They have now a training school for nurses, and had their first graduating class last October.

Wilmington, like other cities, has been visited by small-pox. The first appearance of the disease found the city unprepared to cope with it, should an epidemic occur. Measures were at once taken to erect and equip a building to permanently meet the need. The trustees of the poor and the city council united, and built the Emergency Hospital on the county grounds at Farnhurst. All cases, after the first two or three, have been sent there, and successfully treated. There have been no deaths.

The Delaware State Hospital for the Insane has completed the pathological laboratory, and is doing some original work, besides making examinations for physicians outside. They have also a fully equipped surgery, and operate when necessary. They have a training school for attendants, where they are taught the best ways to care for and control the patients. They have both the trained nurse course and the special care of the insane department.

A Home for Incurables has been recently opened by the Noblesse Oblige King's Daughters, who have worked toward this end for several years. They have now five patients, with accommodations for six, and hope to increase the capacity as the need demands.

Other circles and kindred societies have organized the People's Settlement, have employed a trained worker, and are doing good work in a slum district. Their clubs and classes number one hundred, exclusive of a kindergarten recently opened.

Criminals are confined in county jails and the new workhouse of Newcastle County,— average in workhouse, 185. 115 are employed in manufacturing clothing, the rest in quarry, carpenter shop, laundry, and kitchen.

Delinquent children are cared for in the Ferris Industrial School for Boys and Delaware Industrial School for Girls,— 80 boys and 19 girls in the two schools. Both institutions are doing better work each year.

The aged poor are partly supported in homes, two for white and two for colored, all now sheltering about 70. Others are cared for in the three county almshouses. Improvements have been added to the institution of Newcastle County, and the new name of Newcastle County Hospital takes the place of almshouse. Present population, 234.

Destitute children are cared for in the Home for Friendless Children (inmates, 67); and St. Michael's Baby Hospital and Home (inmates, about 10, both Protestant); St. Peter's Female Orphanage, 53 girls; St. James Protectory, 63 boys; St. Joseph's Home for Colored Boys, 140, and their industrial school and farm at Clayton under same management, with 60 boys, all Catholics.

The sick and injured are provided for in two well-equipped hospitals, Delaware Hospital (allopathic) and Homœopathic Hospital, and in the Emergency Hospital and Home for Incurables.

There are no institutions in Delaware for the blind, deaf, or feeble-minded; but the last legislature appropriated $7,000 for the care of these wards outside of the state.

The Delaware State Hospital for the Insane cares for all state patients,—average, 315.

The Associated Charities and Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children both come in daily contact with all the foregoing, and cooperate with all agencies to promote the best interests of the individual.

THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, WASHINGTON, D.C., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No legislation of importance affecting the charities in the District of Columbia has been enacted since last report, and no measures of vital importance are pending in the present Congress. A bill providing for the temporary care of the insane in general hospitals has been favorably reported upon by the police, legal, medical, and charity departments, and will probably be passed. A bill to limit the jurisdiction of the Board of Charities, and place some institutions now supervised by that board under the supervision of the Interior Department, has been adversely reported by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia and the Board of Charities. A bill

changing the methods of procedure for commitment of patients to the insane asylum and providing for a more exhaustive investigation of cases presented to the court has been introduced, but not yet reported from committee in either House.

The Board of Charities in its annual report and estimates to Congress recommends further extension of the contract system as a substitute for the subsidy system in those cases where it is deemed desirable to use private institutions. The board also recommends the elimination from the appropriation bill of small subsidies heretofore granted to private charities, and the reduction of other similar items with a view to their ultimate elimination. The board recommends also that local charities at present carried on under the direction of departments of the federal government be transferred to the supervision of the District authorities, and made an integral part of the local system of public charities.

A tract of land of 255 acres has been purchased by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia as a site for a new almshouse and burial-ground for the indigent dead, and the architects are now engaged in preparing plans for the new buildings. Architects are also at work preparing plans for the new municipal hospital. It is hoped that appropriations for buildings may be secured for these two institutions during the present session of Congress. The system of release on probation of juvenile offenders has been inaugurated under authority provided by a law passed at the last session of Congress. In the absence of law establishing a juvenile court, the judges of the police court have voluntarily made arrangements whereby separate sessions of court are held for the trying of cases involving children. We have in effect, therefore, a juvenile court; and the children are no longer brought to trial during the regular sessions of the police court, but their cases are heard at separate sessions, when only parties having a legitimate interest in the cases are permitted to be present.

In the field of private charities a more wide-spread interest is being manifested in the work of the Associated Charities. Two social settlements, "Neighborhood House" and "Noel House," have been established; and, although these places are still conducted upon a modest scale, there is evidence of great interest and promise of helpful results. New interest has been aroused in the work of providing better housing conditions for the poor; and a committee of

citizens has recently been organized for the purpose of studying housing conditions in this and other cities, with a view to securing the passage of new laws, as may be necessary to accomplish the desired results.

A greatly increased interest in charities and corrections has resulted from the meeting of the National Conference held here in May, 1901; and we expect to feel the beneficial effects of this meeting for many years to come.

Prisoners serving a sentence of less than one year are confined in the local jail, while those sentenced for a longer period are sent to the penitentiary at Moundsville, W. Va. The average number of prisoners is about 700, divided nearly equally between the jail and the penitentiary.

The vicious, including vagrants and petty criminals, are confined in the local workhouse, and are employed on farm and in work of grading city streets. The total commitments during the past year were 4,035, the daily average number under confinement being 260.

We have two reform schools, one for boys and one for girls, with a daily average during the past year of 220 boys and 30 girls. The Reform School for Girls has recently been enlarged, and for the current year the daily average number will probably be about 60. Under the recently enacted probation law, juvenile criminals are also placed on probation under the care of the Board of Children's Guardians, and a considerable number are now being handled in this manner.

The daily average number in the almshouse during the past year was 237.

The daily average number of destitute children under the care of the Board of Children's Guardians, during the year, was 665; under the care of other institutions receiving public money, about 400.

The sick and injured, in public and corporate hospitals, averaged during the year about 600.

Blind children are educated at the Maryland School for the Blind, the number present at the end of the fiscal year being 25. Adult blind are cared for in the almshouse and by an association for the blind, where employment is furnished to those able to work.

Deaf-mutes are cared for in the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. From July 1, 1900, to November, 1901, there were 38 pupils from the District of Columbia in this institution.

Feeble-minded children are cared for in various institutions through the agency of the Board of Children's Guardians. The number under their care at the close of the year was 44.

The insane are cared for in the Government Hospital for the Insane, the average number being about 1,000.

IDAHO.

JONATHAN EDWARDS, PH.D., WARDNER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

As the state legislature held no session during the last year, there is nothing to report from that source. Reports from state penitentiary, insane asylum, and Soldiers' Home, the same as last year. The report of the state superintendent of public instruction contains the following regarding the deaf, dumb, and blind: —

"On page 33, chapter xvi., of the compiled school laws of Idaho will be found the act providing for the care, education, and maintenance of the deaf, dumb, and blind children of the state. Too much credit cannot be given to the friends of humanity throughout the state and to Idaho's legislators for the wise and benevolent provisions thus made for these children.

"An annual appropriation of $6,000 has covered the expense incident to their education in the states of Washington, Utah, and Colorado. The institutions in these states have long been established, are amply endowed and provided for, and furnished with every facility for carrying on this great educational work. Personal visits to these institutions would suggest that, under present circumstances and conditions, the care and education of the deaf, dumb, and blind children of our state should continue to be provided for as at present. With due regard to differing opinions of some of our predecessors, who have favored the establishment of similar institutions in the state, we would respectfully submit that, in our judgment, many substantial reasons militate against the proposition. In the first place the building and equipment of such an institution would prove an unnecessary burden upon the tax-payers, as the immediate cost of such an undertaking would in a manifold degree exceed the cost of the present plan. Already we have three educational institutions that will require much larger appropriations if they are to meet the requirements for which they were established. The institution of state schools without sufficient appropriation to carry on the work is a detriment to school and state."

The North-western Home-finding Society, with headquarters at Spokane, Wash., continues to push its work and operations in the northern portion of the state. Several children from this state

are cared for by the Spokane Home of the Friendless and the Catholic Orphanage.

Some of the women's clubs show increased interest in charitable work. The poor are provided for through the county commissioners. I have not been able to find that any county poor farms exist.

ILLINOIS.

HASTINGS H. HART, CHICAGO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Illinois has a population of 4,821,550, and is the third state of the Union in population, coming next to Pennsylvania. She has an elaborate system of public charities, comprising four state hospitals for the insane, a state asylum for the chronic insane, a state asylum for insane criminals, a Soldiers' Home, a Home for Soldiers' Widows, a Home for Soldiers' Orphans, institutions for the feeble-minded, the deaf and the blind, and a state eye and ear infirmary for the free treatment of diseases of the eye and ear. Cook County maintains an insane asylum with 1,700 inmates, an extensive hospital for the sick, and a hospital for consumptives. There are in the state 100 almshouses, containing 1,300 insane patients. Only a few almshouses have any special accommodations for the insane.

Illinois is caring for 9,728 insane patients, as follows: in five state hospitals for the insane, 6,114; in the asylum for incurable insane, 356; in the asylum for insane criminals, 158; in the Cook County insane asylum, 1,396; in county almshouses, 1,704.

The correctional institutions of the state comprise two state penitentiaries at Joliet and Chester, containing about 2,100 convicts, a state reformatory at Pontiac for young offenders (ten to twenty-five years), with accommodations for about 1,400 inmates, and 102 county jails, besides an unnumbered list of city and village lockups and station houses. The state maintains a Home for Delinquent Girls, but has no juvenile reformatory for boys. The legislature of 1901 passed a bill for the organization of a State Home for Delinquent Boys, appropriating $25,000 for buildings. Wealthy citizens of Chicago will supplement this fund by private contributions, more than $175,000 having been already subscribed. It is expected that the donors will be given a voice in the administration of the home, in order to preserve it from the unfavorable influence of partisan political control.

The legislature of 1899 authorized the establishment of a colony for epileptics, and a site was selected by the Board of Public Charities; but the legislature of 1901 failed to make the necessary appropriations for buildings, and these unfortunates must await the action of the next legislature. An enumeration of epileptics taken by the State Board of Public Charities in 1900 showed 1,091 epileptics, of whom 516 were found in state institutions, 335 in county almshouses, and 240 in private families. It is probable that this enumeration falls much short of the facts.

The private or voluntary charitable institutions of Illinois are comparatively few in number and small in size, but are of a high quality. Their organizers have profited by the experience of older cities, and have adopted modern methods of construction and management. The hospitals and children's institutions of Chicago will compare favorably with the best in the world. In the city of New York there are no less than seven institutions for children, with a capacity of 1,000 or more. The largest children's institution in Chicago has a capacity of 500 children. The united capacity of all of the children's institutions in Chicago, put together, is only a little more than that of the Catholic Protectory in New York. The children's institutions of New York City contain about 24,000 children, while the children's institutions of Chicago contain less than 4,000. If Chicago had as many in proportion as New York, they would contain about 12,000. New York expends about $3,000,000 annually in caring for neglected children; Chicago, about $400,000 annually.

This favorable condition of things is due partly to the fact that Chicago's institutions are young and undeveloped, partly to the fact that there is a smaller amount of pauperism in Chicago than in some of the older cities, and largely to the fact that the institutions and societies of Chicago have long been committed to the policy of placing neglected children in family homes in preference to bringing them up in an institution.

Illinois probably suffers more than any other state in the Union from partisan political control of public institutions. This evil is not chargeable to any one party or any one administration. It has gradually increased until it has become the fashion, not only to change the administration of state institutions when there is a change of parties, but even to change their administration with the advent of a new governor. Jan. 1, 1901, a new governor took his seat, be-

longing to the same political party as his predecessor. There are in the state seven state hospitals and asylums for the insane, with 6,600 inmates. Each institution has three trustees. The official report of the State Board of Public Charities shows that, of the twenty-one trustees who were in office June 30, 1900, only five remained in office March 31, 1902. In four of the seven institutions every trustee has been changed. All of the trustees for the three institutions for the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded, containing a united population of 1,749, had been superseded. In five other state institutions supervised by the State Board of Public Charities, containing a united population of 2,349 inmates, ten out of eighteen trustees had been superseded. In the fifteen institutions six superintendents were changed in fifteen months. Thus the most miserable and unfortunate classes are exposed to the vicissitudes of political changes, and are left to the care of those who are selected in recognition of their efficiency in rendering political service. It is true that under this system many excellent people come into the service of the state; but it is also true that they no sooner become qualified by experience for the discharge of delicate and technical duties than they are likely to give place to others. An illustration is afforded by the Eastern Hospital for Insane at Kankakee, which had no less than five different superintendents within a period of six years. However competent these superintendents were, it was impossible to secure continuity of policy and methods.

The responsibility for this lamentable condition does not belong to any one individual or any one party. It is shared by the legislature, the public press, and the people of the state who have tolerated and, by withholding their opposition, given encouragement to it.

One result of the long continuance of these conditions has been to arouse a strong public sentiment in favor of a "state board of control," to supersede the local boards of trustees and to be hedged about with such limitations as shall prevent, if possible, its manipulation for the promotion of partisan or personal ends. The State Board of Public Charities, in their last annual report, recommended their own abolition and the establishment of a board of control; but the bill did not become a law.

The people of Illinois are not blind to their own shortcomings. The newspapers generally oppose the present conditions. There is an increasing feeling in both the leading political parties against

political appointments, assessment of public employees, and in favor of a civil service law. The governor has repeatedly declared that he would favor such a law, and local political conventions have made emphatic declarations in its favor. There is good reason to hope for an early and complete reform.

The state appropriations for charitable institutions (not including the correctional institutions) for the current year 1902 amount to $3,870,000, of which about $1,800,000 are for current expenses. The population of the fifteen institutions is 10,644. The average net cost per inmate is $145 per annum.

INDIANA.

AMOS W. BUTLER, INDIANAPOLIS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the General Assembly since the last report.

There is a growing interest in all branches of the work of charities and corrections. Those which most attract attention are perhaps the preventive measures, particularly the child-saving work. Prison Sunday, however, was observed by several hundred ministers last October; and the continued interest in reformation is encouraging.

Taking our institutions altogether, progress has been made in the past year. Several sets of plans and specifications for new jails and poor asylums have been submitted to the Board of State Charities. The increased accommodations provided at the state hospitals for insane have made possible the acceptance of many outstanding applications; and the reports from those institutions for the year ending Oct. 31, 1901, indicate an increase of 251.21 in the daily average attendance. In addition to the new buildings completed last year at each of the four insane hospitals, the hospital for sick insane at the Central Hospital, with a capacity of 100, with which we are very much pleased, has been completed, but is not yet equipped for occupancy. Work has also been begun on the new cottage for women at the Eastern Hospital for Insane. This, when completed, will balance the two departments, male and female. This last is the only provision for increased capacity at any of our insane hospitals the present year.

Perhaps the greatest step taken by the last legislature was the amendment to the organic law of the School for Feeble-minded Youth, providing for the custodial care of feeble-minded women of child-bearing age. A few such women have been received without additional provision; but the contract for the custodial building, to accommodate 100, has been let and its erection begun.

The new cell-house at the Indiana Reformatory, containing 600 masonry cells, has been completed and occupied. In the size and equipment of the cells and the general arrangements for heating, lighting, and ventilating, the most approved ideas and methods have been employed. The other cell-houses have been remodelled, and a number of additional improvements also made.

There have been many changes on the boards of the different state charitable and correctional institutions. In three of the institutions there has also been a change of superintendents. Professor T. J. Charlton, after twenty-one years' valuable service as superintendent of the Reform School for Boys, resigned, and was succeeded by Mr. E. E. York, who for a number of years was clerk of that institution. Miss Sarah F. Keely, for fifteen years the faithful superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls and Woman's Prison, felt compelled to resign; and she was succeeded by Miss Emily Rhoades. Mr. George A. H. Shideler, who did good work as warden of the state prison, resigned November 1, and was succeeded by Mr. James D. Reid.

The number of persons present in the thirteen state institutions on Oct. 31, 1901, was 8,590, 6,120 in the benevolent and 2,470 in the correctional institutions. This is an increase of 163 in the hospitals for insane, 50 at the Soldiers' Home, 2 at the Institution for Deaf, 2 at the Institution for Blind, 83 at the School for Feeble-minded Youth, and a decrease of 11 at the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. The population of the state prison increased 42, and the Reformatory 18. The Industrial School for Girls and Woman's Prison decreased 46, and the Reform School for Boys 29, in the number present as compared with the population the preceding year. The per capita cost of gross maintenance of each institution during the past year was as follows: Central Hospital for Insane, $168.46; Northern Hospital for Insane, $163.28; Eastern Hospital for Insane, $179.26; Southern Hospital for Insane, $170.02; Soldiers' Home, $165.51; Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home,

$168.47; Institution for Deaf, $215.13; Institution for Blind, $247.86; School for Feeble-minded Youth, $135.78; state prison, $126.86; Indiana Reformatory, $136.59; Industrial School for Girls and Woman's Prison, $177.21; Reform School for Boys, $113.48.

Boards of county charities and correction have been appointed in fifty-one of the ninety-two counties in the state, and much good work has been done by them. The reports from the 1,016 township overseers of the poor show that during the past year 52,801 persons were given outdoor relief, amounting in value to $236,723.98. This is an increase of 6,432 in the number of persons aided, and of $26,767.76 in the amount of relief given, over the figures of the preceding year. The increase is doubtless due to the fact that the present trustees are new officials, who came to their work inexperienced in their duties and unacquainted with the requirements of the law. However, the good effects of the law of 1899, restricting outdoor poor relief, are still apparent. The amount of poor relief given this year is $138,482.94 less than was given in 1898, and $393,444.81 less than was given under the old law in 1895.

The work among dependent children during the past year has in general been quite good. The agents of the Board of State Charities placed 223 children in family homes. Many of the orphans' homes have shown greater efficiency than heretofore in finding good homes for their wards. Boards of children's guardians have been appointed in three counties. There are now seven such boards in the state.

The juvenile court idea is beginning to be felt in Indiana. Although there is no law for its operation, the judge of the police court in Indianapolis has arranged for a particular time for the trial of all children's causes. The court is informal, and is held in a room apart from the court-room. No persons except those interested are permitted to be present. The co-operation of the different organizations for better social conditions is being had to some degree in this work.

Four of the colleges in this state have regularly organized departments in sociology, in which much attention is given to the subject of charities and correction. Several of the others give instruction or provide lectures. Two of the largest colleges have arranged courses of lectures by a representative of the Board of State Charities; and other institutions have extended invitations for occasional lectures, dealing specifically with the work in this state.

A. Delinquents.

Class 1. *Criminals.*— Oct. 31, 1901, state prison, 864; Indiana Reformatory, 897; Woman's Prison, 46. Total, 1,807.

Class 2. *The Vicious.*— Oct. 31, 1901, county jails, 623 men, 63 women. Total, 686. Marion County Workhouse, 126.

Class 3. *Insubordinates.*— Oct. 31, 1901, Reform School for Boys, 521; Industrial School for Girls, 144.

B. Destitutes.

Class 1. *The Poor in Poorhouses.*— Aug. 31, 1901, 3,091; State Soldiers' Home, Oct. 31, 1901, 694.

Class 2. *Dependent Children.*— Oct. 31, 1901, Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Homes, 63; county orphans' home, 1,690; county poor asylums, 64.

Class 3. *The Sick and Injured.*— There are twenty-six hospitals in the state. We have no statistics regarding the number of patients.

C. Defectives.

Class 1. *The Blind.*— Institution for the Blind, Oct. 31, 1901, 136; in county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1901, 168.

Class 2. *Deaf-mutes.*— Institution for Deaf, Oct. 31, 1901, 318; county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1901, 72.

Class 3. *Feeble-minded Children.*— School for Feeble-minded Youth, Oct. 31, 1901, 845.

Class 4. *Insane.*— Total enrolled population of the four insane hospitals, Oct. 31, 1901, 3,961; in county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1901, 464; number in homes, estimated, 100; jails, 31.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

A. GRANT EVANS, MUSKOGEE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Indian Territory, as a whole, has no organized government. The five civilized tribes of Indians have had governments of their own, with jurisdiction confined to Indian citizens. These Indian governments have had their own system of schools, which in one or two instances have included the oversight of asylums for orphans,

the insane, and otherwise helpless. For the white population in the Indian Territory, which is about four times as numerous as the Indians, there has not been, and there still is not, any organized government whatever. Within the last four years it has been made possible for towns to incorporate and have a municipal government, supported by taxation on personal property. The rural districts have nothing of this kind, so that there is absolutely no legal way of securing even public schools. Since federal courts were established in the Indian Territory, of course we have had federal jails; and these are in a condition that certainly need examination and such a report as would bring attention to them and secure their enlargement and improvement. We have nothing whatever in the way of reform schools. I am quite sure that, if the calling of public attention to deficiencies in these matters is helpful, attention should be called to conditions in the Indian Territory.

IOWA.

HON. L. G. KINNE, DES MOINES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature is now in session, and bills are pending to prevent the employment of children at labor or service unless over fourteen years of age; establishing a reformatory for men, also a reformatory for women; a compulsory education act; amending law so as to admit females to the Institution for Feeble-minded Children between the ages of five and forty-five years; placing foundlings' homes under supervision of the Board of Control; protecting deserving wives and minor children against non-support of husbands; establishing another school for the deaf; making all inmates of Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home wards of the state; prohibiting the manufacture in the penitentiaries of any goods made or sold in this state.

The bills providing a reformatory for men failed.

There are 907 criminals in the two state penitentiaries, 65 less than one year ago. In the Industrial Schools there are 658,— an increase of 89 over the preceding year.

There are 1,792 inmates in the poorhouses, including 46 children.

The blind, deaf, and feeble-minded are supported by the state. The number now cared for is: blind, 113; deaf, 26; and feeble-minded, 906. Of the latter class there are, in addition, 343 in poor-

houses. In the state hospitals for the insane there are 2,974; and in county asylums, 969.

The Board of Control publishes a Quarterly Bulletin containing statistics relating to the institutions and articles and discussions relating to institution work. Charity work is being pushed more than heretofore.

KANSAS.

F. W. BLACKMAR, LAWRENCE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There have been few changes of any particular interest in Kansas since my last report. The legislature not having met, there are no new laws enacted. The Parole Law enacted at the last meeting of the legislature is working very well. Out of the 98 persons paroled, only three have violated their parole, so far. The new law for dependent children seems to be fairly successful. As before reported, the Charity Bill was rather crude in some of its details and in need of several amendments.

The Society for the Friendless, with Rev. Edward A. Fredenhagen as superintendent, is a new association doing excellent work, especially among discharged and paroled prisoners. The Federation of Women's Clubs of Kansas appointed a Committee on Charities, which has done some successful visiting of charitable institutions.

There are about 900 criminals in the state penitentiary, 200 of whom are from Oklahoma, and about 200 in the Reformatory.

The Industrial School for Boys at Topeka has about 178 inmates; the similar institution for girls at Beloit, about 122.

The School for the Blind has 105 pupils. There are of this class in the state of school age, but not in the school, about 200.

There are 2,100 insane in the State Hospitals, and 300 under the immediate care of the counties. About 200 are outside of institutions. Total, 2,600.

KENTUCKY.

MISS EMMA A. GALLAGHER, LOUISVILLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of 1902 enacted in the field of charities and correction the following bills: (1) providing for appropriation for im-

provements at the Schools of Reform at Lexington, that the state shall pay $100 per year for the maintenance of each inmate and an additional $10,000 for general expenses; (2) requiring that in order to be admitted to these reform schools a conviction must be had for felony or misdemeanor; (3) creating a fireman's pension fund for the Louisville fire department for the benefit of disabled and crippled members and of their widows and dependent children; (4) allowing the state auditor to sue for the cost of maintenance of inmates of the insane asylums who at the time of or after their confinement become possessors of an estate; (5) enabling Louisville to include kindergartens in public school system; (6) to provide an inspector of labor, at a salary of $1,200 per year, and two assistants, at salaries of $1,000 each, to be under the supervision of the commissioners of agriculture, labor, and satistics; fixing fines of from $25 to $150 for any one employing children under fourteen years of age in any factory, mine, or workshop; (7) to regulate the importation of dependent children into Kentucky.

BOSTON MEDICAL LIBRARY AUG 21

Bills attempted: (1) To create a State Board of Charities carrying with it supreme authority, etc., for the benefit of the three commissioners. This was killed by the weights of extravagance and politics attached to it. (2) Providing for a central controlling board for the insane asylums in place of the local boards of commissioners. (3) To establish an epileptic colony at the Central Asylum. It was most unfortunate that this bill did not pass.

No new charity organizations were established in any cities of the state this past year. Of women's work the most noteworthy movements have been the equipment and opening of the Henrie Barrett Montfort Home, a memorial worthy of bearing the name of the noble woman in whose memory the home was dedicated. Its purpose is to shelter young women who need a home where they can obtain reasonable board and at the same time be surrounded by a refined atmosphere. The Women's Christian Association has also opened in a crowded thoroughfare of the business part of the city of Louisville a lunch and rest room for girls and women employed in adjacent offices and stores, where they will be served the best of fare at the lowest possible price. Another feature of the work is an industrial school open each Saturday afternoon in these rooms.

A generous-hearted woman of the city has presented a home for a

Neighborhood House, which will enable the settlement workers to enlarge the scope and efficiency of their work.

The Kentucky Consumers' League, organized during the year, is striving to create a demand for goods made under right conditions, where cleanliness prevails and a just wage is paid.

It was very largely due to the hard work and influence of the women composing the board of managers of the Louisville Free Kindergarten Association that the bill was passed providing for the incorporation of kindergartens in the public school system of Kentucky.

In the two prisons of the state there were in confinement Nov. 30, 1901, 1,765 prisoners; in workhouses, etc., approximately about 3,000 for the year; in Schools of Reform and Industrial School, 760.

The Kentucky Institute for the Education of the Blind, located at Louisville, had under its charge for the year ending Oct. 1, 1901, in the white department, 114 children; in the colored department, 29: total, 143. It is an unfortunate fact that about 70 per cent. of the blind children of Kentucky are not availing themselves of the state's free offer to educate them. The American Printing House for the Blind, located in this city, has this year distributed 174 volumes and furnished various articles of apparatus for the instruction of the blind to blind persons throughout the state. The biennial report of the Kentucky Institute for the Education of Deaf-mutes shows remaining Nov. 1, 1901, 322 white pupils and 34 colored.

The three asylums for the insane of the state show a combined population remaining Oct. 1, 1901, of 2,450 white and 458 colored.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMANN, NEW ORLEANS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The following bills were presented before the legislature: —

1. To establish a board of state charities and correction; 2. An act *grading* offences (with the view of placing more minor offences within the jurisdiction of the city criminal courts, thereby expediting justice); 3. An act enforcing labor with every sentence to imprisonment. 4. An act creating juvenile courts. 5. An act to punish husbands deserting their wives (passed).

Organized charity, free kindergartens, night schools for working

men and children, a small social settlement,— all point toward better conditions for the prevention of pauperism and crime.

Public sentiment is daily growing stronger in favor of more practical education for our poor children in the public schools, and we hope that in the near future manual training for boys and for girls will be part of the curriculum of our schools.

Our new jail for misdemeanants is progressing. Our Boys' Reformatory promises to become a more useful place for little vagrants and truants. The new system inaugurated last year in our penitentiary is a great step taken by the state to better the conditions of the prisoners, who are kept at work on two immense plantations, producing thousands of bales of cotton and thousands of barrels of sugar, as well as vegetables for the men and feed for the horses and cattle. We think, with the present administration, there is some hope of having soon a reformatory for men as well as for boys.

DELINQUENT AND DEPENDENT CLASSES.

Group of Delinquents.

State convicts serving sentence in the state penitentiary:	
White males	158
White females	1
Colored males	944
Colored females	39
Total	1,142
Juvenile delinquents in the Boys' Reformatory (during the year)	287
House of Good Shepherd (girls' reformatory)	258
Total of juvenile delinquents during the year	545

Group of Dependants.

Class 1. *The Aged Poor.*

Inmates of Shakespeare Almshouse	119
German Protestant Home	48
Lafon's Old Folks' Home (colored)	15
St. Mary's Little Sisters of the Poor	194
Touro Infirmary	29
Total	405

Class 2.

Destitute children in sectarian orphan asylums	2,037

Class 3. The Sick Poor.

In the Charity Hospital of New Orleans:	
Total number of patients during the year (daily average)	670
Number of beds	1,301
Outdoor clinics	5,196
Charity Hospital of Shreveport:	
Daily average of patients	123
Touro Infirmary:	
Total number of patients during the year	1,097
Outdoor clinics	19,916

GROUP OF DEFECTIVES.

Louisiana State Institute for the Deaf and Dumb. Pupils	111
Louisiana School for the Blind	37
Insane patients in the State Asylum at Jackson, La.	1,298
Home for Incurables	17

MAINE.

MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, PORTLAND, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Maine has no session of the legislature this year. There has been no new charitable organization or institution established during the year; but several existing charities and institutions have been strengthened and enlarged, among them the Temporary Home for Women and Children, situated at Portland, Me. A new wing has been added to the institution. This has been built as a memorial to Mrs. Philip H. Brown, who passed away during the year. She was one of the founders and trustees of the home.

The Invalids' Home, Portland, Me., where patients are received for small remuneration from any part of the state, is soon to be enlarged. It is a very beneficent institution, and the plans for its enlargement are well under way.

Constant improvements are being made at the Reform School for Boys. The board of trustees have unanimously recommended that the cottage system entire shall be adopted. Heretofore they have had several cottages, but have retained the large central building, under whose roof are more boys than the perfect cottage plan would admit.

The criminals are cared for in state prison and county jails, the vicious and insubordinates in jails and houses of correction.

The poor in poorhouses are better cared for than formerly. Many of the poor are placed in boarding-houses. Many are assisted, so that they can remain in their own homes. There is a fast-growing tendency to care for destitute children outside of the poorhouses, in the various homes for children in the state. There are wards in some of the hospitals where sick poor children are received free of charge. The sick and injured are cared for in general and in city hospitals, city dispensaries, etc.

The blind are cared for in and out of state institutions. There is in Portland an excellent state institution for deaf-mutes. There are in Maine two hospitals for the insane, one in central and the other in eastern Maine. It is claimed that the best work and advanced methods of caring for the insane prevail in these hospitals.

MARYLAND.

MISS KATE M. MCLANE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Maryland legislature for 1902 passed an unusual number of bills of importance from the standpoint of the sociologist. This legislation was largely due to unity of effort among such organizations as the State Board of Health, Medical Societies, the Federation of Labor, the Bureau of Industrial Statistics, a number of women's clubs (notably the Arundell Good Government Club), the Supervisors of City Charities, and leading private charitable associations of Baltimore City, particularly the Charity Organization Society.

The School Attendance Law (applying only to Baltimore City and Allegany County) becomes operative September 1, and provides that all children between eight and twelve, physically and mentally fitted, must attend the public schools unless receiving elsewhere adequate instruction. Children from twelve to sixteen, physically and mentally fitted, must also attend school unless legally employed at home or elsewhere. Such employment is forbidden, if they cannot read and write simple sentences in English, unless they attend an evening or some other school. Attendance officers (not over twelve in number) for Baltimore City, appointed by the School Board, shall try to secure attendance, arrest serious offenders, and visit mills and factories employing children. Penalties are provided for persons preventing children attending school and for persons who employ children illegally.

An amendment to the Child Labor Law raised the legal working age from twelve to fourteen, except when a child is the only support of a widowed mother, an invalid father, or is solely dependent on self for support.

Consideration for the rights of children secured the passage of a carefully drawn provision for the appointment by the governor of a special magistrate in Baltimore for the trial of juvenile cases, and probation officers appointed by the Supreme Bench of Baltimore City will look after the children under the orders of the new magistrate. The bill was indorsed by the leading charitable and educational organizations, public and private, of the city; and the prospect is that this much-needed reform in the treatment of juvenile offenders will be carried out under admirable officials. At first but two of the probation officers will be paid, by funds from persons interested in child-saving. It was not possible to provide for a court presided over by a judge, except by constitutional amendment.

The Workman's Co-operative Insurance Act aims to protect employees in perilous occupations. The act creating the Bureau of Industrial Statistics was amended so as to provide Baltimore with a free employment agency aimed to bring together employers and laborers out of work. This same state bureau was successful in securing a bill providing for two inspectors (to be appointed by chief of bureau) of sweat shops and factories in Baltimore City. It provides that all manufacturers must have permits from the bureau after July 1. It is understood that one of the inspectors is to be a woman, and that both will co-operate with school attendance officers in preventing the illegal employment of minors.

Amendments to the Chattel Mortgage Act of 1900 make it an offence to loan money upon security of chattels, in any form of negotiation, at an illegal rate of interest, with penalty of a fine of $100 for first offence and imprisonment for thirty days for subsequent offences, and the further forfeit of the entire amount loaned.

A tuberculosis commission of five persons (three of them physicians), appointed by the governor for two years, was authorized. The members are to serve without pay; but $4,000 is appropriated for the expenses of the commission, whose duties are to investigate the prevalence and cause of tuberculosis, its economic relation to the community, and to devise and recommend measures for its restriction. An act was passed to punish the slaughter for food of diseased

animals, and yet another bill gives local boards of health summary powers in abatement of nuisances.

The Board of State Aid and Charities received little consideration at the hands of the legislature, to whom its first report was presented. The board had taken slight pains to investigate institutions or to consider on any general plan the rights and needs of the poor. The legislature appropriated $75,000 to charitable institutions in excess of similar items in 1900. This increase went chiefly to institutions managed by private boards. Fourteen institutions never before granted public money were added to the former list, and none were struck from it. Among the new corporate dependants on the State's bounty are a social settlement, 1 hospital, 3 dispensaries, 2 medical colleges, all in Baltimore, and 2 hospitals and a home for aged in the counties. Until some systematic and intelligent principle is adopted to govern charitable appropriations, this same indiscriminate expenditure at the cost of the tax-payer, with no adaptability to the needs of the poor, will continue. Public opinion, no less than legislators, needs education in this matter. The appropriation to the Maryland Training School for the Feeble-minded at Owings Mills was wisely increased $28,000 a year for 1902 and 1903,— an annual increase of $12,000. $36,000 was also given for buildings and furnishings.

The second annual report of the Supervisors of City Charities of Baltimore City for the year ending Dec. 31, 1901, makes clear that the cardinal principle underlying the methods adopted by the board in their varied work is careful treatment of the individual, keeping primarily in mind two queries,— Can the applicant's relatives help? can some private agency help? Negative answers to these two questions alone entitle an applicant to city aid. Thus, out of 490 children referred to the supervisors, but 149 on investigation were found to be proper city charges.

In the realm of private charity in Baltimore the most important fact in its immediate consequences is the resignation in April of Miss Mary Willcox Brown, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society. She will resume her place in the society's corps of volunteer workers.

The vacancy in the office of general secretary of the Charity Organization Society forced to the front a question which has been before the active managers for some time, *i.e.*, the possibility and advisability of closer relations between the society and the Associa-

tion for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, the one general relief-giving agency working on the district plan. The probability is that the best energies of the two societies will be devoted during the coming year to a readjustment of relations so radical that the experiment must be watched with the deepest interest in all our large communities where charity organization society principles have during the past twenty-five years done so much to leaven almsgiving.

If the proposed federation between the Charity Organization Society and the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor helps the next general secretary and the agents of both the Baltimore societies to keep material relief in its proper subordinate position as a means of helping needy families in their homes, so that we can year by year reduce the relative amount of mere "doles" distributed by the charitable agencies in the community, the proposed experiment will have justified itself. Until such a result shall seem assured, the plan will need the careful criticism of its friends.

MASSACHUSETTS.

JOHN D. WELLS, BOSTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of 1901 abolished the offices of commissioner of prisons and general superintendent of prisons, and conferred all the powers and duties possessed by said commission and superintendent upon a new board of prison commissioners, consisting of five persons, two of them women, to be appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the council. One member of the new board, designated by the governor as its chairman, receives a salary of $4,000; the other members serve without compensation.

The same legislature effected a change in the financial management of the several state institutions for the insane. Under the new law these institutions, which formerly had the entire management of their own finances, receiving appropriations from the state for the support of state patients, now have all their expenses paid from the treasury of the Commonwealth, and pay into the treasury all their receipts for the support of town and private patients.

Another law of the same legislature authorizes the Secretary of the Commonwealth to refer applications for the incorporation of

charitable homes for children to the State Board of Charity for its investigation and report.

As a result of legislation of the years 1900 and 1901, the State Board of Charity has been enabled to issue, in connection with its annual report, and also as a separate document, a report of charitable corporations throughout the state, containing a list of their officers, a statement of their objects, the number of their beneficiaries, their financial status, and their annual receipts and expenditures. These corporations include some two hundred institutions or homes for the care of the aged, sick, children, etc., having a total valuation of about thirty million dollars; and the board, largely induced thereto by outside representations of the importance of such action, sought this year for legislation which would authorize it to visit and inspect these institutions, with the purpose of giving the result of such inspection to the legislature and the public. The bill presented by the board was favorably reported on by the Joint Committee on Public Charitable Institutions; but opposition to it developed later, and the matter was finally referred to the next General Court.

The State Board of Charity has modified its rules regarding the release of prisoners on probation from the state farm, shortening the terms of confinement in cases of commitment for drunkenness. In connection with the rules the board has selected and appointed a corps of volunteer probation visitors, nearly all of them men, in different parts of the state, to whom the paroled prisoners are expected to report upon their release, and to continue to report during the term of their maximum sentences. A failure to make such report is construed as a violation of the terms of release, and involves a return to the institution. There are now fifty-six such visitors, representing the cities and towns of the Commonwealth from which the greatest number of commitments are made. The system has already accomplished some very good results.

Of the 353 cities and towns in the state, 221 provide for their poor in almshouses, nine of them uniting in a single almshouse, two having an almshouse in common, and the remaining towns having each its own almshouse. Under the system of state inspection recently established, all these institutions are visited by an agent of the State Board of Charity once in each year, and some of them oftener. The greater number of them are in a very satisfactory condition, and suggestions on the part of the board with respect to

needs and defects are generally welcomed. The advice of the board has also been frequently sought by the local authorities with regard to plans for the rebuilding and reconstruction of almshouses; and the board asked this year for legislative authority to pass upon such plans, but without favorable result.

Further progress has been made in the matter of the colony system for the care of the insane. Under legislative action the State Board of Insanity has purchased a tract of 1,500 acres in the towns of Gardner and Westminster, about sixty miles from Boston, to which patients of the chronic class will be gradually transferred from the hospitals, to the number of about one hundred a year. The colony is under the control of a board of seven trustees, two of them women, appointed by the governor, under the provisions of an act of the legislature of 1900. The colony system will be gradually extended in other directions, in connection with the hospitals and asylums.

The enlargement of the State Sanatorium at Rutland (the hospital for consumptives) is rapidly approaching completion, and a bill is under consideration by the legislature for the establishment of an additional hospital for the same purpose. Moreover, some of the larger municipalities are taking steps to provide within their own limits for the care of patients suffering from tuberculosis in its advanced stages.

A. Delinquents.

Adult Criminals.— State prison, 825; Reformatory Prison for Women, 239; Massachusetts Reformatory (men), 888; county jails, 626; county houses of correction, 2,621; state farm, 811. Total, 6,010.

Vicious and Insubordinate Children.— In institutions, 533; in families, 1,140. Total, 1,673.

B. Destitutes.

Adults.— In state institutions, 869; in local almshouses, 4,295; in families, 357. Total, 5,521.

Children.— State charges in State Hospital, 60; state charges in families, 2,281; town charges in institutions, 465; town charges in families, 694. Total, 3,500.

C. Defectives.

Insane and Feeble-minded.— In hospitals and asylums, 8,189; in local almshouses, 1,255; in private families, 191; in School for Feeble-minded, 729. Total, 10,364.

Deaf.— In institutions, 457.

Blind.— In institutions, 251.

Not included in the above enumeration are 132 sane inmates of the Massachusetts Hospital for Epileptics and 242 inmates of the Massachusetts Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates.

MICHIGAN.

L. C. STORRS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Michigan legislature meets biennially. The session of 1901 was the last, and the report of Michigan to the twenty-eighth National Conference of Charities covered the legislation which was being attempted by that legislature, which was then in session, namely: for state care of dependent children who are defective; for the establishment of a bureau of information regarding criminals; for amending the constitution, so that an indeterminate sentence law might be enacted; to amend the law governing the appointment of county agents; for extending the maximum age of children for admission to the State Public School; for establishing a reformatory prison for women; for establishing an additional asylum for the insane. The only one of the above-named measures which was enacted into law was that providing for the amendment of the constitution, so that an indeterminate sentence law might be enacted, which has yet to be submitted to the people for ratification. The others will be attempted again in the legislature of 1903. A law providing for the separate trial of juvenile offenders was passed.

The D'Arcambal Home for Discharged Prisoners, which for years has done most helpful work for a large number of discharged prisoners, has entered upon the work of broadening its efforts on the lines of a Prison Association.

The twentieth annual meeting of the Michigan State Conference of Charities and Corrections was held at Ionia in December, 1901. The proceedings were both interesting and profitable, and the ex-

hibits of the products of the industrial departments of Michigan's institutions for juvenile delinquent and defective were a revelation to the interested but ignorant beholders.

A. Group of Delinquents.

1. *Criminals.*— Michigan has three prisons,— the state prison at Jackson, the State Reformatory at Ionia, and the Upper Peninsula Prison at Marquette. In these is an aggregate of 1,345 prisoners. Three grades are required in each of the prisons. The parole law is in operation in the State with excellent results.

2. *Vicious.*— By which term it is supposed are meant "drunks," "disorderlies," "vags," etc. These, as a rule, serve short but frequent sentences in our county jails, in which they make from 17 to 87 per cent. of the total number, according to the size of the county and the industry of the officers. The total commitments for the year were 15,444; the average number in jail was 624.13; and the average duration of imprisonment was 14.31 days.

3. *Insubordinates.*— If by this term is meant "juvenile offenders" the following is the report. The state has an Industrial School for Boys at Lansing and an Industrial Home for Girls at Adrian. To the first, boys between the ages of ten and sixteen years may be committed, to be held until seventeen years of age. The Board of Control, however, has authority to place boys out in families while still under its control, or, wherever in its discretion deemed wise, to discharge a boy. 675 boys were in the school at last report. To the Industrial Home for Girls, girls between the ages of ten and seventeen years may be committed, to remain until they are twenty-one years of age. The Board of Control is authorized to reduce the term of sentence, or it may place girls in families while still held under the control of the institution. There were 357 girls in the home at last report.

B. Group of Destitutes.

1. *In Poorhouses.*— Total number in the poorhouse of Michigan 6,563. Average number, 2,751 at date of last report. These figures have varied very little for the past five years.

2. *Destitute Children.*— Michigan has her State Public School for Dependent Children. To this are sent all children of sound body

and mind, who become dependent on the several counties for support, who are between the ages of two months and twelve years, so that in no poorhouse in the state are to be found any such children. The last report shows that since the school opened in 1874, 4,807 children had been received and placed in homes, by indenture or adoption, except 167 who have died, 611 who have had to be returned to counties as ineligible, and 155 in the school. Besides this state institution there are reported in church and private institutions 876 children.

Sick and Injured.— Have no data regarding such.

C. Group of Defectives.

Blind.— Michigan has a School for the Blind. The attendance varies between ninety-five and one hundred pupils, which is very little below the total number of blind children of school age in the state. There may be admitted to this school, free of charge for tuition or maintenance, any resident of the state, between the ages of seven and nineteen years, whose defective sight prevents his receiving instruction in the common schools. Instruction is given from the lowest through the high-school grades. Industrial training is required which shall fit both the boys and girls for future useful lives. Physical development is secured under trained teachers, in the use of dumb bells, Indian clubs, etc.

Deaf-mutes.— This unfortunate class was the one first cared for by the state. The Michigan School for the Deaf will soon celebrate its semi-centennial. The school has an attendance of 425 pupils, which is about all the deaf of school age. There may be received at the school deaf persons and partially deaf persons between the ages of seven and twenty-one years residents of the state, without charge for tuition or maintenance. Classes from the primary to the high-school grades are here maintained. Every child is taught lip reading and articulation, and the pupils can hardly be called "mutes." The industrial training includes cooking, millinery, sewing, dressmaking, wood-carving, wood-turning, cabinet-making, shoemaking, harness-making, tailoring, and house decoration. A large majority of the pupils go out from the school to remunerative positions.

Feeble-minded.— Michigan's Home for Feeble-minded and Epilep-

tic is its baby. The institution was opened in 1895, and has attained the size of 400 inmates, the number about equally divided between the two classes. While under one general management, the two classes are cared for separately in cottages quite distant from each other, and the Home is practically two institutions. Six hundred applications are on file for admission, which cannot be cared for because of lack of room. But the institution is comparatively a recent one, and, while not very popular, receives the attention of each successive legislature in some small degree, each granting additional accommodations. Whether Michigan's accommodations will ever overtake the demand is problematical.

Insane.— The insane are cared for in Michigan in state asylums, one county asylum, and two private asylums. There are five state asylums, one of which is for the criminal and dangerous insane. There were confined in these, Dec. 31, 1901, an aggregate of 4,345 patients. In the Wayne County Asylum (in which county Detroit is situated) there were at the same date 446 ; and, in the two private asylums (one Roman Catholic), 312. This county asylum is under strict state supervision, and compares most favorably with the state institutions. The maintenance of patients is paid for by the county from which they are sent for one year, after which they become state charges. Certain of the patients are state charges from the first. Provision was made by the last legislature for five hundred additional patients, which will relieve for a short time the crowded condition of the asylums and give room for applicants who are waiting admission.

MINNESOTA.

W. ALMONT GATES, ST. PAUL, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no regular session of the state legislature of this state since last report. An extra session was called to consider tax legislation; and the only act passed pertaining to the general subject of charities was one to classify the School for the Deaf and the School for the Blind as educational institutions, and not charitable. The act did not in any way affect the management of those schools.

The Board of Control of State Institutions created by the legislature of 1901 assumed control of all the charitable and correctional institutions of the state on August 1. There have been few changes

in the official force of the institutions. All the former superintendents have remained, and their powers under the new law have been increased. The changes made in minor places have been for good causes other than political.

The constitutionality of the Board of Control law as applicable to the state educational institutions was called in question by the Normal School Board; and the Supreme Court has filed its decision holding the law to be constitutional, and the normal schools under the financial management of the Board of Control. While under the terms of the law the Board of Control has the financial management of the educational institutions, yet the board of regents of the State University, the board of directors of the State Normal Schools, the board of directors of the School for the Deaf and the School for the Blind, and the Board of Control of the State Public School for Dependent Children are retained, each with power to regulate the course of study of its respective institution, and employ and dismiss instructors, teachers, and other employees. These boards have charge of the educational work; and the Board of Control purchases all supplies, constructs all new buildings, and fixes the salaries of employees. In the actual operation of this law it has been difficult to find a clear line of cleavage, satisfactory to all, between the powers and duties of the Board of Control and the powers and duties of the old board, with whom the management is divided.

In regard to the detention hospitals established under the law of 1901, and which was reported in the report from this state one year ago (page 69, Proceedings 1901), there might be some misunderstanding from the language used; and I am asked by my predecessor to make a correction. The state does not construct and maintain the detention hospitals. The Board of Control have arranged with an existing hospital in each of the three larger counties of the state to accept and care for patients whose insanity upon examination in the probate court may be in doubt, and who may for that reason be committed to the detention hospital until their insanity may be determined, but in no event longer than six weeks. These hospitals are paid by the Board of Control from state funds for the care and maintenance of such persons.

The separate training school for girls has not yet been established, owing to the fact that the city of Red Wing has commenced an action in court to prevent the location of such institution in any other place than that city.

Two cottages have been built in connection with the School for Feeble-minded at Faribault, to cost about $40,000; and two more, costing about the same, will be built this summer. There has also been built the south wing of the hospital, costing about $12,000. These buildings will increase the capacity nearly two hundred, and permit the colonization of the epileptics.

The insane asylums at Anoka and Hastings will each be increased this summer by the addition of a wing and a cottage. With these completed, the capacity of each of these buildings will be about three hundred.

Considerable has been done in the way of improvements at all the hospitals for insane, which will make these institutions more comfortable and convenient, but will not materially increase the capacity. Two stone silos will be built at the Rochester Hospital.

A new water supply has been put into the Reformatory at St. Cloud, at a cost of $10,000. The new administration building commenced last year will be pushed toward completion. This is a fine granite structure, and is being built almost wholly by the labor of the inmates.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The statistics herein given are of date Jan. 1, 1902, except where marked (*a*), when they are of date Jan. 1, 1901, not having yet been compiled for the later year.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1. *Criminals.*

In state prison	578	
In Reformatory	173	751

Class 2. *The Vicious.*

In county jails and workhouses.

Serving sentence	(*a*) 281	
Awaiting trial	(*a*) 180	461

Class 3. *The Insubordinates.*

In state training schools	420	420
Total		1,632

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1. *The Poor.*

In poorhouses or boarded at public expense	(*a*) 1,018

Class 2. Destitute Children.		
In State Public School	214	
In orphan asylums, etc.	750	964
Class 3. The Sick and Injured.		
Number of persons reported as having received aid during the year 1900, exclusive of poorhouse charges		(*a*) 8,107
Total		10,086

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1. The Blind.	
In State School	79
Class 2. The Deaf-mutes.	
In State School	263
Class 3. Feeble-minded.	
In State School, including adults under custodial care	774
Class 4. The Insane.	
In state hospitals and asylums	3,633
Total	4,776

MISSISSIPPI.

W. S. HARRISON, STARKVILLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There are six orphanages in this State. Each, with possibly one exception, is in charge of a leading denomination. From all the information I have been able to gather I estimate the number of children in these homes at some 395. The Natchez Protestant Orphan Asylum is the oldest and, until about eleven years ago, the only Protestant institution of the kind in the State. It is not under the special care of any church, but was formerly supported by all. Since each of the stronger churches has undertaken to maintain a home of its own, this one has to a large extent had to rely on undenominational sources of income, such as the various benevolent orders in the state. The institution has a noble history, its work under another name dating back to 1816. Hundreds of children have been the recipients of its generous care. I have not been able to learn how many are now in its charge. The Mississippi Methodist Episcopal Church, South, supports a home, located at Water Valley, which is under the joint control of the two annual confer-

ences in the state. The home, under the management of Rev. W. T. Griffith, now has 102 inmates. The plant is worth about $15,000, and the annual expenditure is about $5,000. The home has a good school ten months in a year. It seeks to put its inmates by adoption into good families or to educate them in the various Methodist colleges in the state. It now has seven girls in these schools receiving a collegiate education. Since its beginning five years ago the home has given protection to over 200 children. The Baptist orphanage located in Jackson is, and has been from its beginning a few years ago, under the management of Rev. L. S. Foster. It now has 53 children, and has received up to date 107. It seeks to place children by adoption in good homes. The property is worth $30,000, and the annual expense is $3,500. The managers are enlarging the plant, and the institution is in a prosperous condition. Excellent school advantages ten months in the year. The Palmer Orphanage in Columbus is the property of the Presbyterian church, and like nearly all similar institutions in the state is of recent origin. Rev. H. E. McCune, the superintendent, says: "We have at present 31 children in the home. There have been 51 received to date. Our plant is worth about $10,000. We have a fairly good school of ten months in a year. We give our children a good common-school education." The Waifs' Home, in or near Biloxi, was founded a few years ago by the late Dr. Clay. The inmates are mostly waifs. They are gathered from the city of New Orleans. There are about 60 in the home.

The Catholic Orphans' Home in Natchez is an old institution, and has cared for a great many children. I failed to get the solicited information, and I am unable to make a satisfactory report. The state has no orphanage, and really needs none, as the orphans are carefully looked after by the churches.

But the state has other very important eleemosynary institutions. The two asylums for the insane, one at Jackson, the other at Meridian, together have an average from 1,200 to 1,500 inmates. They are well provided for and properly treated.

The latest report of the institution for the education of the deaf and dumb shows 137 inmates. From all accounts this unfortunate class is well cared for and reasonably well educated. The institution for the blind has 50 inmates, who are kindly and humanely treated.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, ST. LOUIS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Missouri General Assembly meets biennially. It convened in 1901, and my previous report gave a full account of legislative enactments at that time. The appropriations made to the institutions in 1901 were generous. Many new buildings have been erected, and the old ones improved and modernized during the year. The new St. Louis Hospital on the pavilion plan, the cottages of the insane asylum at Farmington and at the feeble-minded colony in Marshall, are being pushed toward completion.

The Missouri State Conference of Charities and Corrections held its second meeting in Columbia, where our state university is located. The sessions of the conference were well attended. At the close of the meeting, and as a result of it, the Columbia Associated Charities was organized. It has since received the hearty support of the Columbia people. The address delivered at this time on "Politics in State Institutions," by Hon. James L. Blair, of St. Louis, has attracted much attention. We have 70 paying members belonging to the Missouri Conference of State Charities.

The interest in philanthropic subjects seems to increase among the women's clubs of the state, and the majority of them are engaged in some phase of active work of this character. The St. Louis federated clubs will this summer add a fourth vacation school to those they have been supporting. This last one will be for the benefit of the colored children. During the winter the St. Louis Provident Association opened its school of charities and correction. It had a six weeks' course with two lectures a week. Opportunity was given for active work in the association building, and many important questions were treated in papers and discussions. The school was well attended by those interested in charities and reform. The Associated Charities of Kansas City has done excellent work during the year. Among other things it has organized an Improved Dwelling Company to carry out the Octavia Hill plan of friendly visiting and rent-collecting.

It has taken a lease for five years on 124 small houses near the South Hill settlement, and a marked improvement is noticeable in the entire neighborhood since the association took hold here eight

months ago. This same settlement will conduct a six weeks' municipal camp for boys during the summer, and the boys' clubs of the settlement are already studying municipal organization with a young man of experience in such work.

They have recently organized in our state penitentiary a prison league under the auspices of an association known as the "Kansas Society for the Friendless." Warden Wooldridge writes that he is favorably impressed with this new departure in this institution. We shall hope that it is only the beginning of other changes. Governor Dockery did a good thing for the prisoners of the state when he dismissed a number of the old employees who had occupied their positions so long that they had about concluded that they could run the prison without question or interference.

In the state prison located in Jefferson City there are 2,076 prisoners. The daily average of men employed under the contract system at 50 cents is 1,400, of women at 30 cents is 35. The average number of jail prisoners in the St. Louis jail during the year was 194. The number of prisoners in county jails is about 11,135. The number acquitted is 1,457. The number of prisoners arrested by the police department last year was 24,420. The St. Louis Workhouse has in it 145 prisoners; the St. Louis House of Refuge, total number 405: boys, 312; girls, 93. In the Boys' Reformatory at Booneville there are 250; in the State Industrial School for Girls at Chillicothe, 109.

In the St. Louis Poorhouse there are 720; in the county poorhouses, 1,692. Total, 2,412. St. Louis Hospital has 570 inmates.

In the School for the Blind in St. Louis, total number of pupils, 114: boys, 63; girls, 51. In the School for Deaf-mutes at Fulton, 341: boys, 212; girls, 129. Pupils enter at the age of eight, and remain twelve years. There are about 600 deaf-mute children of school age in the state. In the colony at Marshall, 100 feeble-minded children occupy the two completed cottages. Many applications are on file for admission, and will be received as soon as more room can be provided. The number of insane in the state asylums at Fulton, St. Joseph, and Nevada, is 3,114. In the St. Louis Insane Asylum, 666; in the St. Louis Poorhouse, 872,— making a total of 4,652.

MONTANA.

WALTER M. JORDAN, HELENA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At the last legislative session, money was appropriated to build an addition to the Orphans' Home at Twin Bridges, and also to double the size of the School for the Blind and Deaf at Boulder. These additions have been completed, and accepted by the state. There is ample room now in all of our state institutions. During the past year a woman matron has been added to the forces at the state penitentiary at Deer Lodge.

During the year the State Board of Charities and Reform visited all the state institutions, and made a careful examination of their present condition, and found them all in very fine condition.

NEBRASKA.

A. W. CLARK, OMAHA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of our legislature during the past year. The most prominent factor in the field of charitable and philanthropic work since the last meeting of the Conference has resulted from the work of the State Board of Charities. Ten months ago the Insane Hospital at Norfolk was almost wholly destroyed by fire. After moving half the patients to the other two state hospitals, temporary buildings were constructed and the remaining patients were cared for at Norfolk. Upon investigation by the State Board of Charities, this was found unsuitable; and upon the recommendation of the board all the patients were moved from Norfolk, and are now properly cared for in the other state hospitals.

For some years past, efforts have been made from time to time to remove crippled children from poorhouses; but not until the past winter was anything accomplished in this direction. The State Board of Charities succeeded in arranging for their admission to the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln, where they may be properly cared for and educated at state expense, the various counties providing their clothing. Many of these children are bright and susceptible of an education and industrial training, so that they may become almost self-supporting and be in a much better situation to enjoy life.

The State Board of Charities has also been successful in arranging for the removal of epileptics from poorhouses and sending them where they properly belong.

The officials connected with all the state institutions have been very cordial in their co-operation with the State Board of Charities; and, after making personal visits during the winter to every state institution in Nebraska except two, I am very glad to report that conditions in all of them are better, and the management seems greatly improved over preceding years. Especially is this true of the Institute for Feeble-minded, especially mentioned in my last annual report. Only one new charitable institution has been established and come into prominence during the past year; namely, the Christian Home for Children, established by the Free Mission Lutheran Church at Holdrege. A large farm was secured, and 45 children are being taken care of at present. The proceeds from the farm make the home nearly self-supporting. The plan of this institution is to keep the children until they shall be of age, when they will go out into the world for themselves.

The past year has seemed to mark a decline in the state in the matter of organized charities in cities and towns. Beginning with Omaha, the Associated Charities was disbanded nearly a year ago. During the past winter much of duplication and confusion in charitable work was apparent. The police authorities and private organizations and the county officials administered outdoor relief, without any system of co-operation with each other, there being no central bureau of information.

The most discouraging feature of the situation is that there seems no prospect for any reorganization in Omaha. The old organization was so mismanaged, and disbanded with so much indebtedness unprovided for, that the whole movement is in disrepute. Several suits are now pending in the courts over this former indebtedness.

The Charity Organization Society of Beatrice was also disbanded because of lack of interest and because it appeared to those in charge of it that there was no necessity for such an organization in that city of 10,000 people.

The only Charity Organization Society in the state which is in active and successful operation is at Lincoln, under the efficient management of Professor C. E. Prevey, the secretary.

Criminals.— There is but one state penitentiary, in which are con-

fined, at present, 283 prisoners, which would be about the average for the past year. Of the 90 counties in the state, 67 of them have county jails, in which are confined at the present time 884 prisoners. There is no classification to show what proportion of these belong to the criminal class and what proportion to the vicious. The cities and larger towns of the state have city jails, in which are confined 276 prisoners, many of whom belong to the class of the vicious; but our statistics this year do not show how many. The whole number of prisoners in the state at present is 1,442.

The Vicious.— We have no workhouses in the state. The prisoners of this class are locked up in county and city jails. We do not have the information to show how many of them are males and how many are females. Through the efforts of the State Board of Charities we expect by another year definite information concerning this class.

Insubordinates.— The Industrial School for Boys at Kearney has at present 141 inmates, which is about 15 above the average for the past year. The Industrial School for Girls at Geneva has 50 inmates, which is about the average for the past year. The Milford Industrial Home for fallen women between the ages of fifteen and thirty has 59 inmates, which is about the average for the year. This makes a total of 250 insubordinates.

The Aged and Infirm Poor.— Nearly all of these are kept in county poorhouses. One Old Ladies' Home is maintained in Omaha, under the auspices of the Women's Christian Association, with an average of about 20 inmates. 7 old ladies are kept in the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln at state expense. All others are supported by county and by private charities. Recent reports from 67 counties of the state showed that these counties were supporting, of this class, 188 males and 148 females, and that 87 children were in the poorhouses supported by these counties. Great efforts will be made by the State Board of Charities and by private organizations to have these children removed as soon as possible. The above figures are not complete, because no word has been received from the 23 other counties, and because the 67 counties reporting indicated that others were supported in private homes at county expense.

Destitute Children.— The Home for the Friendless at Lincoln has 43 girls and 19 boys, making a total of 62. The Tabitha Home

at Lincoln, supported by the Lutheran denomination, has 30 boys and 30 girls, making a total of 60. The Mothers' Jewels' Home at York, supported by the National Methodist Episcopal Conference, has a total of 100. The Christian Home for Children, supported by the Free Mission people, at Holdrege, has a total of 45. The St. James Orphanage at Omaha has a total of 95. The Child Saving Institute of Omaha has a total of 30. The Nebraska Children's Home Society has no home, but transfers children directly to homes for adoption.

The Sick and Injured Poor.— Omaha is well equipped with one large, first-class hospital,— the St. Joseph, Catholic. There are also three others,— Methodist, Presbyterian, and Immanuel Lutheran. Recently the Methodist Hospital has been largely endowed; and the managers contemplate a new, first-class building, with all necessary equipments. Omaha has also an Emergency Hospital for small-pox and other contagious diseases. Lincoln has one private sanatorium, in which city patients and others are treated. The Seventh Day Adventists have a large sanatorium at College View, near Lincoln, which is after the model of the Battle Creek Sanatorium at Battle Creek, Mich. There are no other hospitals in the state.

The Insane.— The present population of the Insane Hospital at Lincoln is 312 females and 306 males, making a total of 618. This large number at present is due to the recent coming of a large number of the patients from the Norfolk Hospital for Insane, which was destroyed by fire. The average population of the hospital at Lincoln for each day during the past year has been 441. The population of the Hospital for the Chronic Insane at Hastings is 788, which is very much above the average for the past year.

Idiotic and Feeble-minded.— There is in the Institute for Feeble-minded at Beatrice a total population of 290. Among these are 174 epileptics.

The Blind. — The State Institute for the Blind is located at Nebraska City, and has a population of 50.

The Deaf and Dumb.— The Deaf and Dumb Institute is located at Omaha, and has a population of 177. Nebraska has only two other State institutions; namely, the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Grand Island, with a present population of 412, and the Soldiers' Home at Milford, with the present population of 87. Both of these

institutions have large numbers out on parole, and the population in each is very irregular.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

(MRS.) LILLIAN C. STREETER, CONCORD, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature meets biennially. Each of the four bills introduced into the New Hampshire legislature of 1901 by the State Board of Charities and Correction was acted upon favorably and almost unanimously, the tide of public opinion setting as strongly in favor of the board, apparently, as it has heretofore been against it.

The first of these bills provides for an annual appropriation of $2,000 for the salary of a secretary from outside the membership of the board. This was the entire sum asked for, and is the first money ever appropriated for the Board of Charities by the legislature.

The second bill provides for the return annually to the State Board of Charities and Correction of accurate statistics of all outdoor and indoor pauper relief given either by town or county officers. Heretofore no such statistics have been available, and it has been impossible to secure anything but approximate estimates of the amounts expended or numbers relieved.

The third bill provides for an indeterminate sentence for criminals.

The fourth bill provides for a State Home for the Feeble-minded, and appropriates $30,000 therefor. Heretofore the state has appropriated but $1,000 annually for its feeble-minded,— a sum sufficient to care for but three children, who had to be sent to another state for such care. All the rest of the feeble-minded are kept at the county almshouses. The place chosen for the School for the Feeble-minded, for which the state made an appropriation of $30,000, is Laconia. The buildings will be erected immediately, and it is hoped that the school will be opened for pupils during this year. It is estimated that there are about 200 feeble-minded children who will be cared for at this school.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.—Criminals convicted of felony are confined in the state prison at Concord. On Jan. 1, 1902, there were in this prison 156 convicts, 154 men and 2 women.

Class 2.— Persons convicted of minor offences are imprisoned either in county jails or in houses of correction established in connection with the various county almshouses of the state. On Jan. 1, 1902, there were 260 prisoners in jails and houses of correction, 242 men and 18 women.

Class 3.— All minors under the age of seventeen years convicted of an offence punishable by imprisonment other than for life are committed to the State Industrial School at Manchester. On Jan. 1, 1902, there were 140 at this school, 121 boys and 19 girls.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— The aged poor are generally supported at the county almshouses, but in some instances the counties grant aid for their support either in homes for the aged or in private families. On Jan. 1, 1902, there were at the ten county farms 906 paupers, 503 men and 403 women.

Class 2. *Dependent Children.*— The law in New Hampshire provides for the removal of all normal children between the ages of three and fifteen years from county almshouses within sixty days after their admission. They are placed either in private families or in orphans' homes. On Jan. 1, 1902, there were 474 dependent children, 263 boys and 211 girls. 117 were placed in private homes, 287 in institutions, and 70 in almshouses. The children detained in almshouses were nearly all under three years of age or feeble-minded.

Class 3. *The Sick and Injured Poor.*— Are provided for in the hospitals at the county almshouses, but cases requiring special medical treatment are sent to the various hospitals in the state.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1. *Blind Children.*— The sum of $4,000 is appropriated annually for the education of the dependent blind children. As there is no school for the blind in New Hampshire, these children are sent to schools in other states. 13 are now supported at the Massachusetts School for the Blind, 6 girls and 7 boys.

Class 2. *Deaf-mutes.*— The sum of $5,000 is appropriated annually for the education of the deaf-mutes, and these children are also sent to schools in other states, there being no school for the

deaf in New Hampshire. 21 children, 15 boys and 6 girls, are thus supported outside the state.

Class 3. The Insane.— The state appropriates annually the sum of $16,000 for the remedial treatment of indigent insane at the New Hampshire State Hospital. The chronic insane dependent upon charity for their support are cared for generally by the counties in asylums at the county almshouses, but two of the counties at the present time are supporting their indigent insane at the New Hampshire State Hospital. Upon Jan. 1, 1902, there were 151 indigent insane in the State Hospital, 86 women and 65 men. In the county almshouses the total number of insane was 265, 105 men and 160 women, making a total of 416 indigent insane in the state. In addition to this number there were also 321 paying inmates at the State Hospital, making the total number of insane in the state 737, 335 men, 402 women.

NEW JERSEY.

WILLIAM H. ALLEN, JERSEY CITY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The principal forward step to be recorded in our charities during the past year is the First State Conference of Charities and Corrections held in February. Trenton was chosen as the meeting place, both because of its central location and also because it is the capital. The press of the state took special interest in the conference, because it was to be held at the State House in the same chambers where at the time the legislators were considering various measures for the benefit of charitable and correctional work. About sixty towns and cities were represented, and practically every department of philanthropy, private and public, state, county, and municipal. The out-of-town average attendance was over one hundred for the three sessions.

The public service rendered by the conference was recognized by the legislature, when it voted to print as a state document the proceedings. This volume contains about fifty addresses,— one hundred and forty-eight pages. The president of the conference for the next year is Mrs. E. E. Williamson, to whose special interest and enthusiasm the origin and the success of the conference were due. Its vice-presidents are ex-Governor Voorhees, Rev. Amory H. Bradford, Mrs. Stewart Hartshorn, president of the State Legal Aid Associa-

tion and the State Federation of Woman's Clubs, Right Rev. John H. McFaul, Bishop of Trenton, and Charlton T. Lewis, president of the State Charities Aid Association and well-known to the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The executive committee consists of twelve persons prominent in charitable work in state and local societies or institutions.

Two committees were appointed for the ensuing year to carry on educational work. The first is to disseminate information as to the care of consumptives, with special reference to the new sanatorium, whose purpose is mainly educational. The second committee is to consider and advertise means of reducing and treating juvenile delinquency, and will probably devote particular attention to our probation and school laws and needed amendments.

The by-laws provide that the conference shall not formulate any platform nor adopt resolutions or memorials having a like effect. All who have an active interest in the private relief or correctional work in New Jersey are invited to enroll themselves as members. No other tests of membership shall be applied and no membership fee charged, the expenses being met by voluntary contributions. The executive committee has decided to hold the next conference at the same place, during the second week in February, 1903.

The most important measure passed by the state legislature was that providing for a state sanatorium for consumptives, the appropriation committee making the bill effective by granting $50,000 for purchase of a site and erection of building. It is the intention of the state to make this hospital a training school for persons afflicted with consumption.

The last legislature was quite liberal and broad minded in its legislation and its appropriations. The Rahway Reformatory and State Village for Epileptics received large appropriations for improvements and maintenance; while the State Institution for Feeble-minded Women and Girls received a modest sum for the extension of one building, introduction of drains, etc. This last institution is managed with an economy that seems impossible when one sees the excellent accommodations and unsurpassed discipline. The Training School for Feeble-minded Boys and Girls is the only private institution in the state which receives state funds; but the appropriations made for this institution are for board only, the permanent improvements, repairs, etc., being met by private donation. The annual re-

port of this institution is admirable, for it sets forth not only the method of conducting the school, but at the same time shows results in detail.

There are still many epileptics at both feeble-minded schools, but it is the intention of the legislature to make it possible for the State Village for Epileptics to take all of the state's epileptics. There is, however, a disposition on the part of the institution to reject the feeble-minded epileptic; while the management of the state institution feel that the new village should relieve the former of the charges which only obstruct the work for the trainable feeble-minded. Here, again, authorities seem to differ, the private institution believing in retaining feeble-minded epileptic among the feeble-minded. There is evidently a problem here which time will develop.

"Assembly 183" became notorious because of a tremendous paper or letter opposition aroused by the Children's Home Society to a bill holding the State Board of Children's Guardians responsible for all children committed to the almshouses of the state. The State Board won on the merits of the proposition that divided responsibility meant confusion. The Children's Home Society acquiesced in the decision of the governor and the legislature, and publicly renounced all desire to work in the field, which it had been their hope to exploit, until they should have all Protestant, able-bodied children from the almshouses.

Another event which should be recorded in the tomes of the National Conference of Charities and Correction is the publication by the State Charities Aid Association of a monthly,— the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections*. The purpose of this official organ is as follows: —

1. To make known the condition of our charitable and penal institutions, public and private, and that of the classes for whose benefit these institutions are maintained.

2. To call attention to important books and articles dealing with social problems.

3. To record important events, both within and without our State, especially such advanced principles and approved methods as are found to promote efficiency in any branch of warfare against the forces that make for physical and moral degeneracy.

Already there are many signs that this publication is most effective in organizing and expressing opinion throughout the state. It looks

at all problems avowedly from the Jersey point of view, and does not hesitate to make purely local applications. Perhaps its greatest service will be the stimulation of thought and the encouragement of its expression. One thousand copies are regularly issued, although twice extra editions of two thousand copies have been distributed.

The resignation of Superintendent Heg from Rahway Reformatory has been not only a great disappointment, but there is danger that it has given a setback to merit appointments. It had seemed certain that we had turned our backs upon political favoritism or sectional bigotry in the naming of superintendents for state institutions, the Rahway Commission having successfully weathered the gale of petty opposition to the appointment of a foreigner to the superintendency. But months of deliberation have developed, so far as the public knows, no promising candidate of experience and special training. There is still hope, however, that our commission will remember the quiet that followed the former flurry over the appointment of the best man for the place, and choose regardless of the geographical location of the applicant.

NEW MEXICO.

MRS. M. J. BORDEN, ALBUQUERQUE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no advance or change in legislation concerning the subject of Charities and Corrections in the territory of New Mexico. Every thing along that line seems to remain at a dead standstill. Consequently, my last report will cover the field. Just what 1903 legislature may be aroused to do remains to be demonstrated.

NEW YORK.

R. W. HEBBERD, ALBANY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The most important legislation in the field of charities enacted by the legislature of 1902 was the passage of a statute (Chapter 26 of the Laws of 1902) amending the Lunacy Law by abolishing the boards of managers of the state hospitals for the insane and placing the control and management of the hospitals in the hands of the

State Commission in Lunacy. A board of visitation was provided to visit and inspect each hospital at least once a month and to report conditions and recommendations to the governor and the State Commission in Lunacy. This legislation was enacted in compliance with a recommendation contained in the governor's message to the legislature, based upon the claim that great economies of administration could thereby be effected. There was much opposition to the passage of this measure, which, it was feared by many of those prominently interested in the charities of the state, might result in bringing the hospitals for the insane more or less into politics. It is hoped, however, that this fear will not be realized.

The governor in his message, for like reasons, also recommended that the boards of managers of the state charitable and reformatory institutions be abolished, that boards of visitors be substituted, and that the actual control and management of the institutions be lodged in a superintendent to be selected by the State Board of Charities with the approval of the governor. This was not approved by the State Board of Charities, which took the ground that the management and control of the state charitable and reformatory institutions should be intrusted to individual boards of managers composed of philanthropic citizens of the state, whose powers could be properly regulated by the legislature. This also met with earnest opposition from other sources, and its enactment was not attempted. A bill (Chapter 252 of the Laws of 1902) was passed, however, providing for the appointment of a fiscal supervisor of state charities at a salary of $6,000 a year, in whose hands are to be placed the powers of control over the expenditures of the institutions formerly held by the state comptroller and exercised through the Bureau of Charitable Institutions of his department. The fiscal supervisor is also authorized to arrange with the boards of managers or trustees of the institutions affected for the purchase of staple supplies by joint contract. The governor, the president of the State Board of Charities, and the state comptroller are constituted a commission to approve plans and specifications and contracts for construction work. There is, however, practically no change of importance in the management of the institutions.

The legislature also appointed a commission, consisting of the governor, the state comptroller, the president of the State Board of Charities, the state architect, and the president of the board of

managers of the State Industrial School at Rochester, to select a farm site of 1,000 acres of land in Monroe County, to which the school, which now has nearly 1,000 inmates, shall be removed. When so removed, the institution is to be known as the State Agricultural and Industrial School.

An act was passed to incorporate, under private control and management, the Jewish Protectory and Aid Society, to take charge of Jewish children between the ages of five and sixteen years committed to it for delinquency, and to establish and maintain a reformatory for those between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years committed to its custody. This corporation is also authorized to extend religious and moral instruction to Jewish prisoners confined in any prison, reformatory, or correctional institution of the state, to secure employment for them on their discharge, and to extend aid to them and their families.

The legislature also incorporated by special act The Inebriate Home for New York City, under private control and management. This institution is empowered to receive and retain, pursuant to the rules established by the State Board of Charities and pursuant to law, all alcoholic or narcotic inebriates who enter the home voluntarily. This is an experiment which will be watched with a considerable degree of interest, as like institutions have not always proved successful in this state.

The commission, consisting of the governor, the president *pro tempore* of the Senate, and the speaker of the Assembly, appointed by the legislature of 1901 to control the selection of the site for the New York State Hospital for the Treatment of Incipient Pulmonary Tuberculosis, has ratified the selection of Raybrook in the Adirondacks, made by the trustees of the hospital.

Plans for construction work have been approved, and it is expected that the work will be commenced at a comparatively early day. It is the intention to make provision for one hundred patients in the first group of buildings to be erected, and to enlarge the plant when funds are provided for that purpose by the legislature.

The legislature amended the act providing for a children's court in the city of New York by removing the administration of the law from the board of city magistrates, and placing it in the hands of the justices of special sessions of the first division. The court is to be held in some building separate and apart from one

used for the trial of persons above the age of sixteen charged with any criminal offence, and is to be opened for business as soon as the building designed for it can be put in readiness.

The new Reformatory for Women at Bedford, which has been in process of construction for several years, was opened for the reception of inmates May 11 last, and now has about 100 prisoners, mainly from New York City. Like the other reformatories for women (called houses of refuge), two in number, it is built on the cottage plan, and is designed to furnish scholastic and industrial training to its inmates. Women and girls between the ages of fifteen and thirty years found guilty of a misdemeanor, or of a felony for the first time, are received for a maximum term of three years, unless sooner paroled or discharged by the board of managers.

There has been considerable agitation for the establishment of a reformatory for boys over the age of sixteen years found guilty of misdemeanors. At present such boys can only be sent to a jail or a penitentiary. The State Commission of Prisons has urged the legislature to take favorable action in this matter, but thus far nothing has been accomplished.

Another movement looks toward securing a separate institution for the girls who are inmates of the State Industrial School at Rochester and of the House of Refuge on Randall's Island, New York City. The State Board of Charities and the boards of managers of the institutions are practically unanimous in the belief that this separation is desirable, but the means to accomplish it are not yet forthcoming.

Generally speaking, the state charitable and reformatory institutions, the state hospitals for the insane, and the state prisons are in good condition and well administered. The same may be said of the almshouses of the state, which have shown great improvement during the past few years. The condition of many of the jails is unsatisfactory, however; and the State Commission of Prisons, which visits and inspects the jails and has authority to correct abuses in their management, is seeking to bring about better conditions.

State Conference of Charities and Correction.

The Second New York State Conference of Charities and Correction was held in New York City, November 19 to 22, with Hon.

Robert W. de Forest, president. Over six hundred registered delegates were present. The programme was attractive, and much interest was shown in the proceedings. The next conference is to be held in the capitol at Albany, unless the Executive Committee selects some other place of meeting, with Hon. William R. Stewart, president.

The census of delinquents, destitutes, and defectives in this state at the beginning of the fiscal year, Oct. 1, 1901, was as follows: —

Delinquents.

Criminals.— These are confined in the state prisons at Ossining (Sing Sing), where there were 1,214; at Auburn, which had 1,028 men and 108 women; at Dannemora, with 989; and at Napanoch (called the Eastern New York Reformatory, but really a state prison), where there were 234,— making a total of 3,573. At the date given there were in the New York State Reformatory at Elmira 1,276 men, and the state hospital for insane criminals at Matteawan had 605, and that at Dannemora 128 insane criminals. The six county penitentiaries had at the same time 2,206 inmates. The population of these thirteen institutions aggregated 7,788 at the date mentioned.

The Vicious.— Of this class there were in the county jails on Oct. 1, 1901, 1,306 under sentence (and 955 awaiting trials for various offences), in the New York County Workhouse on Blackwell's Island there were 956 under sentence, and in the district prisons 109 under sentence (and 372 awaiting trial for various offences more or less serious). There were, therefore, in these various institutions 2,371 under sentence (and 1,327 awaiting trial).

Insubordinates.— In the reformatories for women and girls, both public and private, there were at the beginning of the fiscal year 1,825 inmates, and in those for children, both public and private, there were 3,930 confined, making a total of 5,755 inmates.

It thus appears that the criminal, the vicious, and the insubordinate under confinement in this state Oct. 1, 1901, aggregated 15,914, while those awaiting trial numbered 1,327.

Destitutes.

The Poor in Almshouses and Other Institutions.— There were on Oct. 1, 1901, in county, city, and town almshouses, exclusive of the defective and the epileptic, hereinafter tabulated, 11,039 persons.

There were also in private homes for aged and friendless persons, supported in part by public funds, 3,026 inmates, and in the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home maintained by the state, with the assistance of the national government, 2,076 members. The total of these three classes under care Oct. 1, 1901, was therefore 16,141 persons. Besides these, it is estimated that about 4,500 aged and friendless persons are maintained in private homes which do not receive public moneys, and are not, therefore, under the ruling of a majority of the Court of Appeals, required to report to the State Board of Charities. Including these, there are, as will be seen, approximately 20,641 in this class of the destitutes.

Destitute Children.— On Oct. 1, 1901, there were 27,404 destitute children in institutions for children in receipt of public moneys and therefore reporting to the State Board of Charities.

It is estimated that at least 5,000 more were in private institutions for children not in receipt of public moneys. It is conservatively estimated that there are about 32,500 dependent children in children's institutions in this state, supported in part by private and in part by public funds.

The Sick and Injured.— The sick and injured in private hospitals in receipt of public moneys Oct. 1, 1901, numbered 6,787. It is estimated that about 2,000 more sick and injured persons were in private hospitals not in receipt of public moneys. The total number of this class under care Oct. 1, 1901, was therefore about 8,787.

The destitutes in the three classes named number in the aggregate about 61,928.

Defectives.

The Blind.— The blind under care in institutions receiving public moneys Oct. 1, 1901, numbered 640. Of these, 282 were in schools, 29 in private institutions, and 329 in almshouses. Besides these, it is estimated that about 100 adult blind persons were in institutions not in receipt of public moneys. This would make the total number under care approximate 740.

Deaf-mutes.— The deaf-mutes under care in institutions receiving public moneys Oct. 1, 1901, aggregated 1,666. Of these, 1,564 were in schools, 15 in a private institution, and 87 in almshouses.

The Feeble-minded.— At the beginning of the fiscal year there were 1,174 feeble-minded persons in almshouses and 1,397 in the three

state institutions intended for this class, making an aggregate of 2,571 under care.

The Insane.— On Oct. 1, 1901, 23,581 insane persons were under care. Of these, 22,654 were in the state hospitals and 927 in private asylums.

The Epileptic.— On Oct. 1, 1901, there were 743 epileptics at Craig Colony, and 292 in almshouses, making 1,035 of this class under public care.

The number of defectives in these five classes aggregated 29,593.

The total number of delinquents, destitutes, and defectives under care Oct. 1, 1901, was 108,762.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY C. B. DENSON, RALEIGH, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The General Assembly of North Carolina holds sessions of sixty days biennally; and, as its next term will be held January, 1903, there is no legislation to report this year. But strong popular movements for upbuilding the state have been in progress, especially in education and road-building. The educational forces are directed by the present governor, Charles B. Aycock, who has signalized his administration by an active and persistent educational campaign.

It is perceived that the limit by state taxation for education has been reached, as the amount devoted to that purpose is three-sevenths of all the revenue of the state. Much also has been done by local effort in the towns, as there are very few towns of any size that have not well-equipped graded schools in operation, supported by local taxation. The present effort is to improve the public schools of the country by consolidating small districts and improving the character and means of instruction. One feature is the holding of educational rallies in prominent towns, which the country superintendents and teachers attend. Subscriptions are made by the townspeople to assist the districts in the country which will vote to tax themselves locally to improve their schools both in buildings and equipments, as well as the duration and standard of the instruction therein. There is more well-ordered, well-combined, and persistent effort in this direction than ever before.

The charitable institutions are gradually increasing their opera-

tions, and are receiving more public funds than at any time heretofore in the history of the state.

The following figures are from the reports directly to the state Board of Public Charities, and are all for the year ending Nov. 30, 1901. The published reports are made biennially, the next to be issued being for the fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1902.

The State Hospital at Raleigh (insane), 437 patients remaining. The appropriation (regular) was $71,500, with $1,250 for special improvement and $10,000 for payment of indebtedness. The per capita cost was $150 on the basis of 475 patients. The State Hospital at Morganton (insane), 745 remaining. The total number treated during the year was 877. The regular appropriation was $100,000 for support and $10,000 to discharge indebtedness, also $50,000 per annum to erect and equip additional building, which is now progressing, and the capacity will reach 1,100. The per capita cost was $133. The State Hospital at Goldsboro (insane colored), 467 remaining; whole number treated, 522. The regular appropriation was $47,500, and $25,000 for addition to buildings now in progress. Notwithstanding some 1,900 were treated during the year in the state hospitals, a considerable number of infirm mind are in the county homes, and a few in the prisons, until increased accommodations are completed. Those at the homes, for the most part, are imbeciles, idiots, and epileptics. Those regarded as too dangerous or unfit for the homes are in prison, usually in special quarters. Earnest efforts will be made to relieve such cases as early as possible. The State Hospital for dangerous insane has been opened at the state prison. Whole number treated, 45, not including four white women in State Hospital proper at Raleigh. The quarters accommodate 49. Appropriation, $5,000; and per capita cost, $104.79.

The North Carolina School for the Deaf and Blind, Raleigh, is divided into practically two institutions in separate quarters of the city. It reports 187 white blind pupils and 63 colored. The deaf and dumb department, in which all are colored, has 99. The total is 352. The annual appropriation is $55,000, with special appropriation for improvements of $10,000. The average attendance was 260, and the per capita cost nearly $200. Extensive additions and improvements were made during the year. The North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb, Morganton, reported 237 pupils,

of which four completed the course and three were discharged. After the completion of some small additions in progress, 300 can be accommodated. The present appropriation is $40,000; and the per capita cost, including improvements, was $170. But the cost for support and tuition apart from the improvements was about $155. A complete water system was added.

The North Carolina Soldiers' Home reported 85 inmates on Nov. 30, 1901, with an average of about 75. The number now slightly exceeds 100. The appropriation for support is $10,000, with a special appropriation of $5,000 used last year for building a new dormitory that was much needed. The home is now in much better condition than ever before, all the rooms of the new building having been handsomely furnished by Chapters of the Daughters of the Confederacy.

The Oxford Orphan Asylum has 221 pupils. The receipts were $29,447 of which the state appropriation was $10,000, the Masons contributing $4,473. The earnings of the institution were $12,659, although each child spends one-half day in school. Improvements in progress are additional buildings, etc., to cost $3,500. There have been placed in approved homes 41; employed on salary, 1; sent to college, 1. Per capita cost for maintenance alone, $50.86; with education, $63.18. The Colored Orphan Asylum (Granville County) had 109 inmates. Receipts, $7,600, of which state paid $5,000. Expenditures, including improvements, $8,049. Placed in approved homes, 20. The Children's Home of Buncombe County, Asheville, supported in part by county funds, has two departments, white and colored, maintained separately. There are 28 whites and 14 colored. Since its organization, out of 350 received, 275 have been placed in good homes, 20 died, 10 were taken by parents, and 3 returned under the law. Many of these are very young, and have been legally taken from vicious or abandoned households. The per capita cost has been $30 per annum, with voluntary aid.

The Lindley Training School, Asheville, for unfortunate young women, has 18 inmates at present. 50 per cent. of those received have been reclaimed to a virtuous life.

In addition to the orphanages heretofore reported, as doing effective work and sustained by the principal religious bodies in the state and by the Order of Odd Fellows, two others are now pro-

jected, one by the Order of Red Men and one by the Junior Order of American Mechanics.

The hospitals in the leading towns, mentioned last year, are improving in means and equipment. Omission was made of the excellent institutions in Winston and Salem, the successors of much benevolent work in the past hundred and fifty years, of the Moravians in Salem. These consist of the Twin City Hospital and the Old Ladies' Home. A valuable adjunct is the Slater Hospital for colored at the Slater School. To this Mr. R. J. Reynolds, a citizen of Winston, has given $5,000.

A special hospital for the treatment of consumptive negroes, is situated at Southern Pines, and called the Peckford Sanatorium, maintained throughout the winter months, and is almost wholly absolute charity. Its superintendent is a colored physician, Dr. L. A. Scuggs, of ability and experience. It has its own building and grounds, and is incorporated by the state, but maintained by donations. Number under treatment, 41. Of these 75 per cent. were benefited.

A thoroughly equipped private institution for the care and treatment of the insane, near Morganton, known as Broadoaks Sanatorium, was opened in September, 1901, for the reception of patients. It is under the supervision of the Board of Public Charities, and was licensed by that body, under a recent statute.

The merits of the parole system are engaging public attention to some extent, and the Board of Charities is making a thorough investigation of the subject for the information of the people prior to the meeting of the General Assembly in January next.

The inspection of the county homes and jails by the boards of visitors organized in each of the ninety-seven counties by the Board of Charities, and reporting upon blanks forwarded in March and September, have been steadily performed; and correspondence from this office with the commissioners of the counties in charge of these institutions, upon their condition and management, is slowly, but quite noticeably, bringing about improvement to some extent in the structures built, but still more in the standard of maintenance, although many are still deficient in important respects.

OHIO.

JOSEPH P. BYERS, COLUMBUS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Ohio legislature has just completed its biennial session. The enactments of the session concerning the work in which the National Conference is interested were fewer than had been hoped for, but we have no reason to be entirely ungrateful.

A law was enacted extending to each of our workhouses the benefits of the parole law.

An act providing for the voluntary commitment of persons to state hospitals was passed. Under the provisions of this act

> A person in an incipient stage of mental derangement may apply for admission to and treatment in the state hospital for the district in which such person resides; and the superintendent of such hospital is authorized to receive such person as a patient in said hospital for not more than sixty days, if he is satisfied from his own examination and the written statement of some reputable physician familiar with the applicant's condition, . . . that the applicant is in an incipient stage of mental derangement, in need of such treatment as the hospital affords, and likely to be benefited thereby. The applicant must be . . . able to appreciate the reason for and the purpose of his application. . . . The number of persons cared for as patients in any hospital under this section shall not at any one time exceed five.

The administration of the State Reformatory at Mansfield has been greatly strengthened by some important amendments to the laws governing that institution; particularly with reference to the parole of prisoners. The statutes now directly prohibit the consideration by the board of managers of any petition, request, or other form of outside influence for the parole of any prisoner. This institution has what is known as a "field officer," whose sole duty it is to look after prisoners discharged on parole. Provision has been made for enlarging the trades-school.

A bill was passed providing for the appointment at the Boys' Industrial School of a record officer. His duty will be similar to the work of a state agent, consisting of the after-supervision of boys discharged from the institution, the collection of statistics and records, etc.

The repeal of the habitual criminal law, marks in the opinion of many of our citizens, a distinctly backward step. The constitutionality of the law was not in question. A number of years ago the

Supreme Court held it valid. The argument used to secure its repeal was simply this: that there were prisoners confined in the Ohio penitentiary under its provisions for theft the amount of whose stealings was comparatively insignificant, not sufficient, when unaccompanied with "breaking and entering," to secure them a penitentiary sentence. The *fact* of habitual criminality seemed to be taken little account of. It remains to be seen whether or not criminals who have been driven out of the state by this law will return to it and resume operations within its borders.

For the second time we have to record a failure in securing the appointment of state agents to supplement and facilitate the work of our children's homes in the placement of children. A bill providing for the appointment of one such agent, and carrying an appropriation of $2,000, after considerable delay passed the House. It reached the Senate two days before adjournment, too late to receive consideration in that branch of the General Assembly. The law was modelled very closely after the Indiana plan.

June 1, 1903, is the date fixed by law on and after which direct state care must be given to all insane and epileptic persons who become public charges. The last General Assembly made liberal appropriations for new buildings at existing hospitals, including the State Hospital for Epileptics. It will be possible, with proper effort, to remove from the county infirmaries of the state, on or before the above date, all of the insane and epileptics now being cared for in these institutions, namely: insane, about 800; epileptics, about 300.

At the Institution for Feeble-minded Children rapid progress is being made with new buildings, which, when completed, will add about 600 to the present capacity of 1,100. A number of the larger boys and men are now located upon the colony farm. This farm is about ten miles from the parent institution, and, with a purchase of land recently provided for, has in the neighborhood of 1,500 acres of land.

The Associated Charities of Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Columbus, and in several of the smaller cities of the state, continue to do good work. Probably in no other city of the state has such a marked influence been felt from the Associated Charities as in the city of Columbus. This organization has been in existence about three years. When it began, the city poor fund was administered under the direction of city officials, with little or no discrimination and

with a somewhat lavish hand. Coincident with the organization of the society, a marked improvement in the administration of the city fund commenced. At the present time, all applicants for relief from the city are referred to the Associated Charities for investigation, and *no relief is given by the city unless upon the recommendation of the Associated Charities.* The result of this arrangement appears with great force in a recent financial statement. This statement shows that the whole amount expended by the city for food, fuel, and clothing during the months of December, January, February, and March last, was, in round numbers, $1,800. It is safe to say that under the old plan the expenditures for this purpose would have been from five to ten times as great.

The Humane Societies of the state constitute one of the most important parts of our social machinery. Under the operation of these societies thousands of dollars are being annually collected from parents who have refused to support their children or who have been accustomed to spend their weekly wage in dissipation; and this money is, through the Humane Societies, made to do its legitimate work in caring for the wives and children. Last year, in the city of Toledo alone, more than $10,000 was collected in this way. Proportionate results are being reached in other cities of the state.

Nearly three hundred delegates attended the last meeting of the Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction at Lima, the full proceedings of which were published in the *Ohio Bulletin of Charities and Correction*, issued quarterly by the Board of State Charities.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, PORTLAND, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the legislature since report for 1901, and consequently no new legislation. No new charitable organization of importance has been established except that of a State Conference of Charities and Correction, which was held in Portland, Feb. 18 and 19, 1902, at which time a permanent organization was effected. The following resolutions were adopted: —

That the Executive Committee of the conference carefully consider the advisability of action looking to the presentation at the next legislature of a bill designed to bring about the creation of a State Board of Charities.

That the committee urge the passage at the next legislature of a bill regulating the transportation to Salem of women committed to the State Asylum for the Insane, to the end that such transportation may be under fitting supervision.

That the committee urge the passage at the next legislature of a law which shall provide for the education of feeble-minded children under state supervision.

324 criminals are, on an average, confined in the state penitentiary at Salem. Present number of inmates, 314. About the same number are in the county jails. The vicious are confined in city and county jails. At the city jail in Portland the able-bodied are compelled to work at a rock pile. Insubordinates are committed to the State Reform School at Salem when the parole system of supervision by the superintendent of the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society (a quasi-state institution) fails to effect a reform. The Reform School has now about 70 inmates.

The aged and infirm (sane) poor are partly in almshouses and partly in private families at public cost. About one-half (fifteen) of the counties board them out. Destitute children are cared for in orphan homes, partly at public and partly at private cost, not under state supervision. The greater number are placed in homes by the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, which has in temporary charge an average of 35, and places out about 300 per annum. The sick and injured are cared for in city and county hospitals at public expense.

The blind are cared for at the School for the Blind at Salem and in almshouses. Deaf-mutes are cared for and instructed at the School for the Deaf-mutes at Salem. 63 pupils are now enrolled. No special provision is made for the feeble-minded. The insane are provided for at the State Asylum for the Insane at Salem. Present number of inmates, 1,242.

PENNSYLVANIA.

KATHARINE H. NORRIS, PHILADELPHIA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of Pennsylvania has not been in session this year. The legislature of 1901 appropriated $40,000 to an existing organization, the Free Hospital for Consumptives of Philadelphia, for buildings at its colony at White Haven, Delaware County, Pa. It

also passed an act creating a Homœopathic State Hospital for the Insane, and appointed a commission to select a site. The appropriation was cut down so that no money was left save for the purchase of a site and the drawing of plans. The constitutionality of the act of 1901 creating a juvenile court is now being tried before the Philadelphia Court. Three county homes or poorhouses have been, or are about to be, opened, Jefferson, Potts, and Falls Counties.

By degrees the counties are adopting the plan of having county homes in place of township poorhouses. There are about 17 counties where there is not an equivalent. The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity has, through the generosity of friends, recently built and equipped a new Wayfarers' Lodge, costing $50,000, which is to be formally opened in May. A charity organization society at Bethlehem, Pa., has been organized this year. Also recently one in Allentown, Pa.

General Isaac Wistar, president of the State Board of Public Charities, has recently resigned his office in protest against the present methods of much subsidizing of private charities by the state.

RHODE ISLAND.

HENRY B. GARDNER, PROVIDENCE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Not much new work of importance has been inaugurated in this state during the past year. As a result of the efforts of the local council of the women of Rhode Island and of the women's clubs of the state, a branch of the Consumers' League has been organized, but has not yet begun active work. Some fresh-air work has been done by the King's Daughters and private individuals, and the Swedish charities have been organized. Lack of funds prevented the maintenance of summer playgrounds and vacation schools by the school committee, but one playground was maintained by a working girls' club with the assistance of outside contributions.

The probation law continues to yield good results. During the past year there were committed to the charge of the probation officers 593 persons (241 men, 124 women, 228 juveniles), of whom not over 10 per cent., as nearly as can be determined by the reports, were given up to the courts for sentence.

There is little also to record in the way of legislation. A bill has been introduced in the legislature, but not yet enacted, authorizing the State Board of Charities and Corrections to visit and inspect the town almshouses, and to make an annual report on their condition and management with such suggestions and recommendation as the board may deem expedient. The need of such investigation and suggestion is made evident by the brief report on the actual condition in these almshouses, published by the board this year as a result of an investigation by its agent. A bill has been enacted providing for a state sanatorium for consumptives, but no action has been taken.

Of the criminal and vicious there are in the state prison 178, in county jails 263, and in the State Workhouse and House of Correction 283. At the Sockanosset School for Boys there are 364 inmates, and at the Oaklawn School for Girls 47.

The poor are cared for in the State Almshouse (adults, 365; children, 55), and in city and town almshouses (adults, 318; children, 19). In addition to those in almshouses there are about 40 poor boarded by cities and towns in private families. The State Home and School for Destitute Children has under its care in the school 136, in families 142.

The blind are supported in institutions outside the state. There are 28 thus cared for. The Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf has 64 inmates. There is no institution in the state for the feeble-minded. Probably three-fourths of the children in the State Almshouse are of feeble mind. 31 feeble-minded persons are supported in institutions outside the state.

The insane are supported in the State Hospital,— present number, 782.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

REV. EDMUND N. JOYNER, COLUMBIA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The best summary of the conditions in the sphere of charities and corrections in this state may be found in the governor's annual message to the last legislature, January and February, 1902. His observations on the urgent issue of child labor show, not only his own grasp of the question, but it is well to say that he is but a little, if any, ahead of his constituency in the state. Still, in the

face of his strong, direct, conservative plea, the session of the General Assembly, to which it was addressed, failed to place the safeguard sought of it around the children of the Commonwealth. It seems to your correspondent that the review presented by Governor McSweeny in his message contains matter of interest, and it is given herewith: —

CHILD LABOR.

In my last message I directed your attention to the importance of giving careful consideration to the question of child labor in our manufacturing establishments. With the rapid growth of manufacturing industries in our State, this has now become a question that directly concerns the people of South Carolina, and a problem that is demanding solution. The solution should work no injustice upon the mill-owners; nor should the health and the future happiness and prosperity of the children, who will in a few years be citizens and voters, be neglected. Nothing should be done that will injure the manufacturing interests, nor retard the progress and development of South Carolina in material growth.

There is no doubt that to keep the small child confined at labor in the mills is injurious to the child physically and mentally. Without time for recreation, play, exercise, sunshine, school,— things so necessary for the growth and healthy development of the child body and child mind,— nothing but labor and toil from before sunrise until after dark, is compelled, by the laws of nature, to dwarf the child mind and the child body, because it is in direct conflict with the laws of nature, and will have its influence and effect upon the citizenship of the future.

Even looking at the situation from a cold business point of view, it is better that we should not have child labor. In a good many instances the mill-owners themselves have realized this fact, and have prohibited child labor in their mills. Looking to the future, they know, in order to have skilled labor in the grown-up man and woman, it is necessary that the child of the present shall not only not be dwarfed physically and mentally by close confinement and labor during the tender years of youth, but that it shall have all the advantages offered by the schools of the community. In some cases the parents who work in the mills are required to sign a contract to force their children, between certain ages, to attend the public schools provided. There are mill towns in this state which are models in everything that goes to make an ideal community. The mills contribute largely for the education of the children, and in some of these communities you will find as good school buildings as in any of the larger towns and cities. Besides, the mill-owners pay their part of the school tax, which goes into the general fund, and the most pleasant relations exist between the mill-owners and the operatives. The fact that the mill-owners, who are in the best possible position to judge by experience, recognize by such action the importance of educating and caring for these children, is a strong argument in favor of the necessity of a law prohibiting child labor.

In many instances, however, these rules are not required; and the mill-owners, finding child labor cheapest, and looking only to the present, substitute the child for the man, and the health and future happiness of this child are sacrificed to present gain.

This question is one that has to be met in every manufacturing country; and in every instance it has been found to be the part of wisdom, looking both to the mental and moral uplifting and the material advancement of the people, to prohibit the labor in mills of children of tender age. England, France, Germany, and all the principal manufacturing countries of Europe, and all the manufacturing States in the North in our own country, after thorough investigation and long experience, have decided in this manner. The question is a new one in the South only, because the South has, within very recent years, developed into a manufacturing section.

The manufacturing industries of the South, in the near future, will be compelled to meet strong competition from the people of other sections of the globe, particularly from the Far East. In order to meet this competition, they must have skilled and intelligent labor; and this can only be secured in the operatives of the future by the education of the children of the present. And the children of the present cannot be educated and prepared for their duties and for good citizenship if they are required to labor in the mills during their tender years.

The question is demanding solution, and the part of wisdom is to solve it now; for the longer it is left alone, the more difficult of solution it becomes. This question was discussed by you at your last session, and in one branch of your body defeated by a large majority. Final action, however, was postponed by a continuance of a bill in the other branch.

After careful and thoughtful consideration, it is my opinion that it is a duty which you owe to humanity and the citizenship of your state to protect these children by prohibiting their labor in our manufactories. If the parent does not feel sufficient interest in his own offspring to look after its best interest and to prepare it for the high duties of good citizenship, then it is the duty of the state to step in and assert its authority by taking care of the life and the health and the happiness of these helpless little ones. I realize that it is a perplexing question where the authority of the parent ends and the duty of the state begins; but, in a question of such vital importance to the state, fine-spun theories should not be indulged, but the best interests of the Commonwealth and its citizenship should be the paramount issue. No child under twelve years of age should be permitted to labor in the manufactories of this state unless it be necessary for the support of a widowed mother.

I have been unable to secure any records of the poorhouse affairs. Indeed, it is doubtful whether they would be anywhere available, short of direct research in each county.

In the matter of delinquents, I can find no classification after the manner desired by the Conference. The reformatory department for juvenile offenders, established three years ago, is progressing; but it is scarcely yet beyond the experimental stage. It has, however, an unlimited field, especially among the negro youth.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

W. B. SHERRARD, SIOUX FALLS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the past year there has been an addition made to the insane asylum at a cost of $65,000. There are now 547 inmates in this institution. The School for Feeble-minded has also been completed and opened. It now has 29 inmates, and is receiving others as fast as the legal formalities permit. The building cost about $40,000, but is wholly inadequate to the needs of this unfortunate class. Now that the necessity has been demonstrated, the coming legislature can be relied upon to provide for its enlargement. An addition costing $10,000 has been made to the School for the Blind. It has now 27 inmates, and 25 more enrolled for admission this fall. The penitentiary has 153 inmates, 20 of whom are federal prisoners. There are about 70 children in the Reform School, some of whom are from North Dakota. The Deaf-mute School has 46 pupils. The Children's Home Society has just completed a beautiful receiving home and administration headquarters at a cost of nearly $30,000, which has been furnished by the benevolent people of the state. There is a growing interest on the part of the people of the state in behalf of the delinquent and dependent classes.

UTAH.

GRACE M. PADDOCK, SALT LAKE CITY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of the Utah legislature since my last report. A branch of the P. E. O. society has been established in Salt Lake City. This is a women's club and a secret order. The society has 22 members, and is doing some good work along the line of charity and reform. It is assisting some poor families, has endowed a free bed in one of the hospitals, and has protested against the publication of particulars in criminal cases. It has also allied itself with the Consumers' League, which has been organized in Salt Lake City for the bettering of the condition of the working people. The Consumers' League is pledged not to patronize the stores after a certain hour at night, also not to purchase any article manufac-

tured in sweat-shops. A street-cleaning association has been organized in Salt Lake City.

Criminals are confined in the state prison, city and county jails. The state prison seems to be at present in excellent condition. A good deal of manual work is being done by the prisoners. A knitting and suspender factory is being operated. A 15 cent fee is charged visitors. This goes toward maintaining a prison library. The prisoners are allowed to make things on their own account and sell them to visitors, and thus provide themselves with pocket money. The legislature at its latest meeting appropriated $58,000 for the state prison and $17,165 for new buildings and improvements. Gratuities to discharged prisoners amounted to $2,500.

Vagrants, drunkards, and prostitutes are confined in the city and county jails. The Crittenden Home for fallen women at Ogden is the only place of the kind in the state.

Insubordinate children may be sent to the Industrial School at Ogden, Utah. The last legislature appropriated $22,600 for the Industrial School, $4,500 additional for the manual training department and $2,700 for the completion of a cottage for the girls. The latest report of the institution shows 29 inmates confined and 86 on parole.

Salt Lake City has a well-conducted county infirmary where the aged and helpless may be sent. The state of Utah makes no especial provision for this class. There are two private orphanages in the state. Salt Lake provides a county hospital where the destitute of this class are cared for. A few free patients are received at the private hospital.

The state of Utah provides a school for the blind. The enrolment at latest report was 11. Besides the common school branches, the pupils are instructed in instrumental music; and trade instruction is also provided. The boys are taught shoemaking and cane-seating. Basket-making has also been taught. The girls are taught sewing and bead-work. The state also provides an excellent school for deaf-mutes. Present enrolment, 65. No state provision is made for the feeble-minded. Utah provides for the insane. There is a well-equipped asylum at Provo. Number of patients at latest report, 291.

VERMONT.

J. EDWARD WRIGHT, MONTPELIER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The sessions of the legislature are biennial. The latest was in the fall of 1900. Vermont, with a population of 343,000, has, besides its state penal and charitable institutions (the prison, the House of Correction, the Industrial School, the Soldiers' Home, and the Hospital for the Insane), the following institutions, originating in and largely sustained by private benevolence: nine hospitals, four homes for the aged, four homes for children, three homes for friendless women, and nine other homes, schools, and missions of sufficient importance to be worthy of mention.

The increase of secret and fraternal organizations in recent years is noteworthy, also the multiplication of public libraries in small towns, and the efforts made to reach even scattered hamlets with travelling libraries; also, the adoption in some of the larger places of the kindergarten as a part of the public school system.

The following statistics are from the recent reports: the average number of criminals in the state prison was 142. This is 14 less than in the preceding term. The average number in the House of Correction was 150. The average number in the county jails (estimated) is 60; in the Industrial School, 151.

In poorhouses, children's homes, and in hospitals the number is unknown.

$11,000 is appropriated each year by the state for the instruction of the blind, deaf, and the feeble-minded in institutions in Massachusetts and Connecticut. 1,800 persons in the state are classed as insane. Of these, 842 are under state care in hospitals. Many others are in "private retreats" and in poorhouses.

VIRGINIA.

WILLIAM FRANCIS DREWRY, M.D., PETERSBURG, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the past twelve months Virginia has established no new institutions, though she has done much looking to the improvement of those already existing. The legislature appropriated $180,000

for additions and improvements to the penitentiary. The work will be begun at once. A modern, up-to-date prison will be built. Liberal appropriations were made to the state hospitals for the insane, the State Reformatory, and the Institute for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, and the old Confederate veterans. All the insane of the state are being cared for in the four institutions, which are entirely under state control. That part of the Eastern Hospital at Williamsburg which was recently destroyed by fire will be speedily rebuilt on modern lines. The contract has been let. An additional tract of land has been purchased for the Central Hospital at Petersburg, for the colored insane, and a farm colony will be established thereon.

The constitutional convention, now in session, has passed resolutions changing the system of managing the state prison and the hospitals for the insane, the object being to put these institutions as far as possible beyond the control of the political spoilsmen. The management of the penitentiary is to be in the hands of a board of five, appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the State Senate. The board is to appoint the superintendent and the physician, and the superintendent is to appoint all the subordinate officers and employees.

Heretofore the state hospitals have been managed, each separate and distinct, by a board of nine. There was no "concert of action," except voluntary, between the institutions, each one being a law unto itself. The proposed change provides that for each hospital there shall be a special board of three which shall have immediate supervision of the hospital, and that there shall be a general board of directors, consisting of the members of the several special boards, for the general control and management of all the hospitals. The general board is to appoint the superintendents. The special board is to appoint the subordinate officers for the respective hospitals, and the superintendent is to appoint all the employees. Provision is made for a commissioner of state hospitals for the insane, who is to be held responsible for the proper disposition of all moneys appropriated or received from any source for maintenance, etc. He is also to establish a uniform system of keeping records, accounts, etc., for all the hospitals. The terms of the superintendents and other officers are to be four years instead of two, and the directors are to be appointed for six instead of three years.

An effort was made to establish a board of public charities, but

failed. My last report dealt at some length on the methods in vogue in this state respecting the delinquents, defectives, and the destitute. Nothing specially new has since taken place.

WASHINGTON.

THOMAS P. WESTENDORF, CHEHALIS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At the biennial session of the Washington legislature for 1901–02 the most important act, touching the management of the institutions of the state and our charitable system generally, was the creation of a new Board of Control to supersede the Board of Audit and Control provided for by the preceding session,— the new management to consist of three citizens of the state, not more than two of whom shall belong to the dominant political party. These are to be known as the State Board of Control and are appointed by the governor. They each have a salary of two thousand dollars ($2,000) per annum, and an expense fund not to exceed one thousand dollars per annum for each member. They have full power to manage and govern the two insane hospitals, the state penitentiary, the State Reform School, the State Soldiers' Home, and the State School for Defective Youth.

There was an appropriation made by the legislature for the benefit of the White Shield Home at Tacoma, amounting to $1,200 for the biennial term. This, with other private charities, previously reported, is in a flourishing condition. The women's club organizations throughout the state show a great increase in membership, and are doing much to aid in the distribution of good books in the jails and prisons. They have recently, in Seattle, succeeded in getting an ordinance passed to prevent the posting of objectionable posters.

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY THOMAS C. MILLER, CHARLESTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

As we have no legislative session, no enactment relative to charities and correction work has been placed upon the statute books. How-

ever, several of the provisions made by the legislature in 1901 have been wrought out, and considerable advancement made. The three miners' hospitals in different sections of the state have been completed and equipped, and are now accommodating a number of those who are so unfortunate as to be injured in the mines or on the railroads. All of these buildings are of modern architecture, well equipped and well managed, and are already proving themselves to be of very great advantage in caring for the injured.

The new administration building at Pruntytown, which with its equipments will cost about $50,000, is nearly ready for occupancy at the Reform School for Boys, and additional lands have been purchased for this institution.

A school building has also been completed at the Industrial School for Girls at Salem, thus separating the domestic and the educational departments.

WISCONSIN.

H. GROTOPHORST, BARABOO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At the last biennial session of the legislature, laws affecting the charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions were passed as follows: —

Children under fourteen years of age, residents of the state of Wisconsin, who are of sound mind, but who are crippled or deformed in body (provided their bodily ailments are such as to admit of proper care and treatment at the school with the facilities which are or may hereafter be provided therefor), are permitted to enter the State Public School at Sparta.

Heretofore children under the age of fourteen and over three years of age were admitted to said Public School, but by law recently passed any child under the age of fourteen years shall be received. Since the passage of said law, quite a number of infant children have been received and cared for in a cottage prepared for that purpose.

Heretofore all reformatory work was carried on directly by the state. Now a law is in existence whereby any county or counties of the state — provided such county or counties have a population of over fifty thousand inhabitants — may establish industrial or reformatory schools for the purpose of caring for, maintaining, and educating children under the age of eighteen years who may be legally

committed to any industrial school as vagrants or on conviction of any criminal offence or for incurable or vicious conduct.

The legislature also passed a law whereby the governor of the state of Wisconsin is required to establish a central system of state accounting, such system to apply to all departments of the state and to all charitable, penal, reformatory, and educational institutions of the state.

Since the last report from this state the trustees and superintendents of the county asylums of the state of Wisconsin have formed an association. Their first meeting was held at La Crosse, Wis., Dec. 4, 5, and 6, 1901. Their next meeting will be held at Oshkosh the first week in December, 1902. This association is an important one; and, if kept up, will be a great source of benefit to the superintendents especially who have charge of the chronic insane of the state.

Criminals.— The total number now in the state prison, the Milwaukee House of Correction and State Reformatory, is 1,090.

Insubordinates.— The population of the State Industrial School for Boys is 340. The population of the Industrial School for Girls is 222.

The Poor in Poorhouses.— The number of poor in the various poorhouses in the state at the present time is 1,530. Of these, 1,102 are male, and 428 female.

Destitute Children.— The number of destitute children at the present time is about 191.

The Blind.— The number of blind persons in the School for the Blind at Janesville is 116.

The Deaf.— At the State School for the Deaf at Delavan there are at the present time 205 persons. In addition to those there are about 175 people attending the day-schools.

Feeble-minded Children.— The number of feeble-minded people taken care of by the state at the present time is 488.

The Insane.— The number of insane under public care Sept. 30, 1901, was 5,023. Of these 3,509 are taken care of in the twenty-eight county asylums.

WYOMING.

F. B. SHELDON, CHEYENNE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the legislature in this state since the last report of this office, and consequently no legislation has been enacted relative to charitable or penal institutions.

The improvements provided for by the legislature of 1901 in the State Hospital for the Insane have been prosecuted during the past year, and the addition to this state institution is now very nearly completed and ready for occupancy.

No important charitable organizations or institutions have been established, and the only movement worthy of mention in this line known to your correspondent is that of the improved facilities and accommodations which have been inaugurated in the Laramie County Hospital at Cheyenne. This hospital for many years has been run practically as a poorhouse, without suitable quarters or accommodations for those desiring hospital treatment. Within the past year the matter has been taken up by an organization of citizens, under the name of the Hospital Aid Society; and subscriptions have been made and efforts put forth to make this a first-class hospital in every respect. The efforts of the Aid Society have met with every success, and the hospital is now on a par with those which may be found in much larger cities.

The annual report of the State Board of Charities and Reform for the year 1901 shows an unusual increase in the number of convicts in the state penitentiary. The average daily attendance of convicts for the year ending Nov. 30, 1901, was 176.5, which was an increase of about 16 per cent. over that of the previous year, and is the greatest increase of any year in the history of the state. This unusual increase is probably due to a large extent to the large number of laborers brought into the state during the past two years for railroad construction work, and it is not anticipated that this ratio of increase will continue during the coming year. The location of the state penitentiary has recently been changed from Laramie, Wyo., to Rawlins, Wyo., pursuant to an act of the legislature.

The state has only a few juvenile delinquents, and these are kept in institutions of other states, such a plan being considered better and more economical than to undertake to establish institutions for them in this state.

The poor in poorhouses and destitute children are too small in numbers to be given any consideration in this report. The absence of thickly settled communities in the state makes very little demand for charitable work along these lines.

The state maintains a State Hospital for sick and injured at Rock Spring, Wyo., where a considerable number of patients are treated each year. This, however, is not purely a charitable institution, since charges are made for the care and treatment of all patients at this hospital. Those who are unable to pay for their own treatment here are cared for by the counties from which they come. The total number of patients treated in the hospital during the past year was 464, of whom 191 recovered, 170 were convalescent, 35 were improved, and 68 died. The large number of deaths is accounted for by the fact that a large portion of the patients of this hospital are miners, who receive injuries in the mines which prove fatal. Of the 464 cases treated, 270 were surgical cases and 194 medical cases.

The blind, deaf, and feeble-minded are also very few in numbers, and are cared for in institutions outside the state.

The number of the insane did not increase during the past year. The number of admissions for the year was exactly the average of the preceding four years, thus showing that during this period at least there was no tendency to an increase of insanity in the state. This is especially gratifying in view of our rapidly increasing population and the increase in other state charges. The proportion of female patients is gradually increasing, so that the ratio of the two sexes is now less than two to one, whereas eight years ago it was three to one. This decreasing disproportion between the two sexes, while in a measure a reflection of a similar change taking place in our state population, is probably more largely due to the fact that a much larger proportion of the male admissions are suffering from progressive and degenerative brain disorders. As a result, a very large number of males who do not recover their reason survive but a few years, a vast majority dying of the brain diseases causing insanity.

An addition has been built to Wyoming Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Cheyenne during the past year, to be used as a hospital for the sick and infirm. The increasing age of the inmates of the home made this a necessary addition to the equipment of the home.

CUBA.

JEROME B. CLARK, HAVANA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the period covered by this report Cuba was under a United States military government, and laws were not enacted by legislation, but by means of civil orders issued by the military governor of the island. The only one of importance bearing upon charitable affairs which was issued during the past year was: Civil Order No. 3 (Series of 1902), which deals with the organization of the Schools for Nurses in the island of Cuba, under the immediate direction of the Department of Charities.

On June 10, 1901, Major E. St. J. Greble, U.S.A., who had been superintendent of the Department of Charities since its organiza tion, was relieved from duty, and was succeeded by Major Jefferson R. Kean, surgeon of the United States Army.

Upon the withdrawal of the United States authorities from the island of Cuba, which took place on May 20 of this year, the control of the department was assumed by the Central Board of Charities, as provided for in the Charities Law (Civil Order No. 271, Headquarters Department of Cuba, July 7, 1900). The superintendent of charities was succeeded by a secretary of the Department of Charities, who is elected by the Central Board, and is its executive officer.

The National Conference of Charities and Corrections of Cuba was organized in July of last year, and held its first meeting in Havana, March 19–22, 1902. The success with which it met was most marked. Delegates attended from all parts of the island, and the membership exceeded 1,000. 7 delegates, authorities in the various lines of charitable work, were invited from the United States. It can be stated that this is the first movement of the inhabitants of the island of Cuba toward the assumption of an interest in the charitable affairs of the island; and the intelligence and enthusiasm with which they have entered into it promise well for the future. The second conference will be held in March, 1903, in Santiago de Cuba.

As a direct result of this conference, there has been a movement toward the formation of a charity organization society in the city of Havana, which promises good results. A Committee of Organization has been appointed, but to date has not reported.

Criminals are confined in one (1) state prison (the "Presidio") located at Havana (present number of inmates 672) and in county prisons ("Carceles") located in all the principal cities and towns of the island. There are no reformatories or houses of correction of any kind for adults.

The vicious (drunkards, prostitutes, tramps, etc.) are confined only in the police stations, mostly for short terms ranging from five to sixty days.

There are two large state-supported reform schools, one for boys and one for girls, with a population of 179 boys, 96 girls, making a total of 275 children. The indeterminate sentence is in vogue in these institutions, making it possible for a child to earn a discharge in two years by good conduct, etc.

The aged poor are supported entirely in private asylums administered by the religious order of the Little Sisters of the Poor, seven of which receive state aid given in the form of a per capita payment of six or seven dollars per month for each inmate sent by the department. Municipalities sending inmates are required to make the same payment for all sent. There have never been any public poor houses in Cuba. The total number of inmates in these institutions is 493.

All destitute children who become public charges are supported by the state, which provides for them in two modern training schools, one for boys and the other for girls, and by a bureau for placing out children with families. There are now under the care of the department 516 children in training schools, and 372 placed out with families, a total of 888. Up to the early part of 1902 there were many private asylums subsidized by the state; but the subsidies have now all been withdrawn and the institutions either closed or the number of inmates reduced to that which could properly be maintained with their private income.

The sick and injured poor are provided for in 32 hospitals, seven of which are ranked as general and 25 municipal. Although by the Charity Law of 1900 it was provided that municipal hospitals should be supported by the municipalities to which they belong, this has been found up to the present date to be impossible on account of disorder in municipal finances; and it accordingly happens that no city in the island as yet supports its municipal hospital. It is understood, however, that the state support is only a temporary measure,

and that as soon as practicable the support of these institutions must be assumed by their respective municipalities. There is attached to each of the five general hospitals in the island a training school for nurses, which has been organized and administered by the Department of Charities. These are located in the following cities: Havana (Hospital Mercedes), Matanzas (Hospital Santa Isabel y San Nicolas), Cienfuegos (Civil Hospital), Puerto Principe (General Hospital), Santiago de Cuba (Civil Hospital). There is also located in Havana a dispensary for the poor ("Dispensario Tamayo"),— a state institution, — which provides free medical and surgical treatment for the poor.

No provision has yet been made either by the state or by private institutions for the care and education of the blind or deaf and dumb of the island.

The few cases of feeble-minded and idiotic children that have come under the department have been provided for in a section of the State Hospital for the Insane. There is a great necessity for a special institution for the care, treatment, and education of the feeble-minded, idiotic, and epileptic children of the island.

The insane of the island are all cared for by the state in the State Hospital for the Insane of Cuba, commitment to which is made by any court on the island upon the certificate of two physicians who have had the patient under observation for thirty days. There are now 861 inmates in this institution.

The lepers of the island are cared for in two private hospitals — the San Lazaro Hospital at Havana and the San Lazaro Hospital at Santa Clara. Both institutions own property, the first named having an income from private funds of about $24,000 yearly. The other receives most of its support from the state. No law has been found requiring that the lepers of the island be confined in institutions, but in the charter of the San Lazaro Hospital of Havana is contained an authority from the Spanish throne authorizing it to retain lepers committed to it. Under this authority it has been the custom, which is still kept up, to arrest lepers of the lower classes who are found in public places and to commit them to the San Lazaro Hospital. An effort is being made, with every chance of success, to have these institutions classed as public, as it is believed that the nature of the commitment — for life — requires that they should be under the direct charge of the Department of Charities. There are now 148 inmates confined in these two institutions.

PORTO RICO.

B. H. OSTERHOUDT, SAN JUAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At present there are four institutions under the control of the office of Director of Charities, consisting of an Insane Asylum with 200 inmates, Boys' Charity School with 300 inmates, Girls Charity School with 200 inmates, and leper colony with 25 inmates.

The last legislature passed a bill authorizing the establishment of an asylum for the blind to accommodate 150 inmates, said bill being approved by the governor on February 25, the law going into effect March 1; and the establishing of this institution is now under way. Unfortunately, the island is not in a financial position to provide for all the deserving destitute, nor are we able to support other needed institutions; but by adding, from time to time, to our number of institutions, as well as by increasing the number of inmates in those already established, the condition is generally and rapidly improving. The budget for charitable purposes has been increased from $83,000 in 1900 to $140,000 for the coming fiscal year. Still, with the climate and the quantity of wild edible products to be had for the plucking, there is not the actual suffering from poverty and destitution that exists in the northern countries.

Some success has been obtained during the past year in placing children reaching the age limit at work in shops, offices and families, but it is too narrow a field for so broad a work.

San Juan and Ponce each have a Woman's Aid Society, and much good is done in providing work for poor women. There are several private institutions supported by the church, which are in good condition and doing good work.

Also, many municipal hospitals, most of which are in wretched condition for lack of funds. These institutions are all under the inspectionary power of the Director of Charities, but are supported by the local authorities.

Porto Rico is deeply in need of the interest of a philanthropist.

PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK, CANADA.

REV. HUNTER BOYD, WAWEIG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have no Provincial organization of charities and corrections, and no complete directory of institutions has yet been prepared; but the city of St. John and one or two other cities are now convinced of the desirability of concerted action within their own boundaries and between the respective municipalities.

The Associated Charities of St. John was organized May 10, 1899, and is doing good work. The secretary is Mrs. C. H. Hall. Assistance has been more effectively rendered to the needy, and imposture has been largely prevented by careful investigation.

The census was taken in the province a few months ago; but statistics are not yet available concerning delinquents, destitutes, and defectives.

This province makes grants through the government for public charities and reform to the extent of $63,000.

A partial summary of institutions and societies is all that can be attempted in this report, but efforts will be made to secure a complete directory of charities and corrections in New Brunswick.

Last year the government considered the proposal to send representatives to the National Conference in Washington, but did not deem it advisable. If a Provincial Society of Charities and Correction can be organized, it may be possible to secure adequate representation; and a medium will then be found for dispensing the invaluable information. The hope is cherished that a set of Proceedings of the National Conference will be procured for one of the libraries of the province or be provided for the Associated Charities office in St. John.

The most important institution established in this province during the past year is the Chipman Hospital in St. Stephens, Charlotte County.

The New Brunswick penitentiary is situated at Dorchester. The St. John Reformatory for Boys was founded in 1892. The old St. John penitentiary was transferred into an Industrial Home.

There are six almshouses in New Brunswick. The largest is the St. John Almshouse, which receives a considerable number of the needy. Outdoor relief is given from public funds by the almshouse

commission after investigation. There is a home for aged females at St. John. The Convent of the Good Shepherd was established in 1893 as a refuge for penitents. It has a school of reform and industry connected with it. It is located in St. John. There are also at St. John the Protestant Orphans' Home; Protestant Orphan Asylum, founded in 1854; St. Vincent's Convent, founded in 1854; Convent of the Good Shepherd; Little Girls' Home; and the Wiggins Male Orphan Institution. At Fredericton there is a Catholic orphanage. At Silver Falls is St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum for Boys, founded in 1879. At St. Basile de Madewaska is a hospital, boarding-house, academy, and orphanage, founded in 1875.

For the sick and injured there is at St. John a general public hospital; at Fredericton, the Victoria Hospital; at Chatham, a hospital, founded 1819, 25 beds; at Campbellton, a hospital, founded 1889; at Silver Falls, the Mater Misericordia Hospital and Home, established 1888; at St. Stephens, the Chipman Hospital, founded 1901; at Tracadie, a Hospital for Lepers, founded 1858 by the Sisters of the Hôtel-Dieu, Montreal,— present number, 15 men and 6 women. In an entirely separate building the Sisters have charge of 30 orphans. There is also at St. John a Maternity Hospital conducted by the Salvation Army; a Home for Incurables; the Victorian Order of Nurses; a Nurses' Home; and the New Brunswick Association for the Prevention and Cure of Consumption and Other Forms of Tuberculosis.

The Institution for the Blind of the Maritime Provinces is situated in Nova Scotia, at Halifax. At Fredericton is the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. The insane are cared for in St. John at the Provincial Lunatic Asylum.

We have also in St. John the St. Vincent de Paul Society, two branches; National Council of Women of Canada; St. John Local Council, with 20 Federated Societies; and the Seamen's Mission Society. At Fredericton there is the Ladies' Aid Society in connection with St. Vincent de Paul.

NOVA SCOTIA.

LAURA BORDEN, HALIFAX, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In presenting a report of the charitable work done in the province of Nova Scotia it must of necessity be incomplete, as space will not permit me to do justice to the subject.

There are twenty jails in the province, to some extent under dual management, that of the sheriff and of the municipal council. During the past few years some improvements have been made, and in the report for 1902 the inspector of penal institutions sums up the characteristics of a model jail as follows: —

A model jail should be secure, to prevent escapes, and should be arranged to permit of classification, should be sanitary, managed by competent officials, and should be governed by regulations which permit of attempts at reform and the enforcement of proper discipline.

Our aim is to put our jails in that healthy condition. There are nineteen poor farms and asylums for chronic harmless insane throughout the province. In the same report the inspector says: —

It is a source of much pleasure to me to be able to report a gradual and steady improvement in the care given the dependent members of our population, sane and insane.

Under the head of humane institutions may be mentioned the Nova Scotia Hospital and the Victoria General Hospital at Halifax and the Aberdeen Hospital at New Glasgow. The Nova Scotia Hospital for Insane is a large public institution. During the year 538 patients were under treatment, 142 discharged. A new annex is now in course of erection.

The Victoria General Hospital during 1901 treated 1,609 patients,— 683 cured, 493 improved, 218 unimproved, and 71 died. Improvements during the year were cold storage building and new operating table.

Aberdeen Cottage Hospital at New Glasgow does good work, both medical and surgical. There is also a Cottage Hospital at Pictou for miners.

The Halifax Association for the Improving of the Condition of the Poor is supported by voluntary contribution. The number of

families relieved during the winter of 1901 was 264. The stone shed was opened on 19th of January, and kept open until 23d of March to give employment to those in need. Expenditure during the year, $6,678.87.

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Halifax, relieved 423 families, and distributed coal, fish, bread, etc. They expended $5,675.26.

The Nova Scotia Society for the Prevention of Cruelty investigated 450 cases. Branches of this society, with local officers, are to be found in almost every town.

The Halifax Protestant Industrial School is an institution for the reformation of juvenile law-breakers. At present there are 36 boys in the home. There is a regular course of instruction and training in gymnastics and drill. A manual training school was started this year.

St. Paul's Almshouse of Industry for Girls, Halifax, sheltered during 1901 25 children, 4 of whom have since been adopted into good homes.

The Halifax Infants' Home was established in 1875. During 1901 it sheltered 38 little children. The aim of the home is to save infants' lives. A new building was erected last year at a cost of $15,000.

The Protestant Orphans' Home at Halifax sheltered, during the year, 49 children. 20 have been adopted into good homes. The children receive a good public school education.

Home for Aged, Halifax. The object of this institution is to provide a home for ladies who, from reduced circumstances, are compelled to seek a home in old age. No person is admitted who has not attained the age of sixty. A fee of $100 per annum is charged. There is an Old Ladies' Home at Yarmouth, N.S., conducted on the same principle.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, Halifax, was established in 1857. The attendance last year was 123. During the coming year the children will be trained for industrial work. A new building will be erected, it is expected, in a few months for that purpose.

At Yarmouth there is a Town Mission School. The building cost $3,600, and contains rooms furnished for school, sewing-school, kitchen, hall for concerts and religious services. 1,200 children have been brought within the influence of the institution during the past fourteen years.

The Seamen's Friend Society of Halifax, incorporated in 1887, provides accommodation for sailors when in port. Contains a reading-room, provides stationery, etc. It accommodated 755 merchant seamen, petty officers, and men of the Royal Navy during the past year.

No new legislation in regard to charitable work has been passed during the year.

The Home of the Good Shepherd, Halifax, is conducted by the religious order of Good Shepherds. The Order of Our Lady of Charity of the Good Shepherd was introduced into Canada in 1844; and seven houses, of which this is one, were opened in 1890. One of the objects it has in view is to receive females sentenced by court for some offence requiring imprisonment and discipline. All the work is done by the nuns and inmates throughout the house. 30 nuns are on duty day and night, and the inmates are under their supervision.

St. Patrick's Industrial School, Halifax, is conducted by the Christian Brothers for Roman Catholic boys, who in many instances are also law-breakers. Five Brothers constitute the staff, and it is supported largely through an endowment by the late Hon. Patrick Power. In addition the city allows a sum of money for each lad sent in by the authorities, and there are private contributions. Some income is derived from the sale of farm products.

The School for the Blind is at Halifax. Since its erection it has had two additions, and this year it has been decided to erect a new school building.

ONTARIO.

A. M. ROSEBRUGH, M.D., TORONTO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been very little legislation in Ontario lately affecting charitable or philanthropic work. The subject of a separate institution for the care of epileptics is still before the province. A number of epileptics are housed in the State Institution for the Feeble-minded at Orillia and a few in the county houses of refuge; but this does not provide, probably, for more than one-quarter of the entire number requiring to be provided for. The question of providing for the custodial care of weak-minded women and girls has been discussed at two of the meetings of the Canadian Conference

of Charities and Correction, and also by the National Council of Women of Canada; but there is no prospect of the matter being taken up by the government at present.

The Prisoners' Aid Association is still pressing for the adoption of a probation law whereby first offenders — delinquents and drunkards — may have an opportunity to reform by being placed under the supervision of probation officers on suspended sentences, and thus be saved from the stigma and contamination of jail life.

The Ontario Reformatory for Boys is to be moved to a more central part of the province, and no doubt the latest improvements in buildings and equipment will be secured. The reformatory deals with boys from fourteen to eighteen years of age, and has an average population of 140. The industrial schools, of which there are two, take incorrigible lads from ten to thirteen, and their respective populations are 145 and 50. These small numbers are doubtless due largely to the child-saving work carried on by the neglected children's department under the supervision of Mr. J. J. Kelso. There are thirty-five branch Children's Aid Societies located in the leading cities and towns of Ontario, and some three or four hundred children are dealt with annually by these organizations, the policy being to place dependent children in foster homes. There are now nearly 2,000 under regular supervision, and they are making splendid progress toward useful and self-supporting citizenship. This department is exceedingly popular with all classes in the community.

Some effort was made this year to induce the legislature to encourage the scientific treatment of inebriates, but without success. However, something in this line is being done by the Prisoners' Aid Association under the direction of Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, the secretary, and the results have been most encouraging. Two years ago a bill was drafted conjointly by the Prisoners' Aid Association and the Ontario Medical Association, and presented to the Ontario government, in which provision is made for an extension of the probation system in dealing with cases of drunkenness. Probation officers will have the power to place dipsomaniacs under medical treatment, either in cottage hospitals, special wards in public hospitals, or in the form of home treatment. We are most desirous that this bill shall be adopted by the Ontario legislature in the near future. As already mentioned, experiments commenced by the Prisoners' Aid Association in this direction have been attended with most encouraging results.

Great attention has been given of late years to the subject of tuberculosis; and the National Sanitarium Association has provided splendid accommodation in Muskoka, Northern Ontario, for those afflicted with this blighting disease. The general hospitals of the Province are also setting apart special quarters for consumptive patients. A society has been formed in Toronto, called the Anti-consumptive League, for the purpose of promoting the establishment of an institution near the city for the care and treatment of the consumptive poor of Toronto.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

B. BALDERSTON, CHARLOTTETOWN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Our legislature provides for the poor and the insane.

A new Prince Edward Island Hospital has lately been built and equipped at a cost of $20,000, all raised by voluntary subscription. The grounds, about fifteen acres in extent, were donated by Rev. Dr. Brecken.

Persons convicted of crime in this province are sent to the penitentiary at Dorchester, N.B., which is maintained by the federal government.

We have no institution for the reform of the vicious or juvenile delinquents.

We have an average of 50 in a poorhouse, which is sustained by the province. The government also pays out money for the support of the poor outside the institution. The poor cost the province last year $7,307.35.

There is no special provision for destitute children, but the province provides for their support in private families.

The sick and injured are cared for in two hospitals supported by private subscriptions. Those who are able pay for their attendance, but about one-half are poor persons who pay nothing. The Prince Edward Island Hospital treated during the year 252 patients, besides providing medicines and surgical dressings for 70 outdoor patients. The Charlottetown Hospital also cares for a large number.

We have no institution for the blind here, but the province pays for their education in a school for the blind at Halifax, N.S.

The deaf-mutes are also sent to an institution at Halifax, and their expenses paid by the province.

No provision has been made for feeble-minded children.

The insane are cared for in a hospital provided and maintained by the province. There was an average of 195 inmates last year. Net cost to the province, $22,472.76.

We are much in need of a reformatory for juvenile delinquents. Formerly boys convicted of crime were sent to the penitentiary at Dorchester, but the results were not satisfactory: they were only changed into hardened criminals. During the last term of the Supreme Court a boy of eleven years was found guilty of larceny; but the judge would not send him to prison: he handed him back to his father, taking a bond for his appearance, should he again transgress.

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

FRANCIS H. McLEAN, MONTREAL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

As this is the first provincial report from Quebec, the Committee on Reports has requested a general statement of conditions rather than a simple account of the advances made in the field of charities and correction during the twelve months just ending. Nothing but a bird's-eye view of important features is possible within the limits allowed. Amplification must come in later reports.

PUBLIC CHARITY.

A. The Province.

1. *Institutions and Maintenance Required by Statute.*— Prisons and penitentaries are the only institutions in the domain of charities and correction exclusively maintained and administered by the province of Quebec.

Youthful delinquents are maintained in reformatories and industrial schools under private control. The insane are maintained in three asylums at public expense, but under private management. These asylums also have pay patients.

With regard to youthful delinquents, a per capita allowance is paid for their maintenance. The same arrangement is made with reference to the insane, excepting that half of the cost must be paid by the municipalities in which the commitments were taken.

All the above institutions are subject to inspection by the inspectors of prisons and asylums.

2. *Permissive Maintenance.*— The province *may*, but is not required by statute to, assume joint responsibility with municipalities in the maintenance of children from six to sixteen years who are orphans or whose parent or parents have been sentenced to prison or are grossly misbehaving themselves, providing there are no relatives or proper guardians to receive the children. The provincial authorities are more and more refusing to assume responsibility under this statute, as will be explained below.

3. *General Subsidies.*— Subsidies in bulk and without requiring the admission of persons sent by public officers are made to a number of institutions each year. The list includes general hospitals, orphan asylums, shelter for women, etc. These subsidies are very insignificant, however. For 1901 they amounted to $44,570.75, divided among 78 institutions.

B. The Municipalities.

1. *Maintenance Required by Statute.*— One-half the per capita cost of maintenance of all the insane committed from each municipality.

2. *Permissive Maintenance.*— Any municipality may entirely support in an institution children from six to sixteen years without parents or whose parents are unable to support them on account of sickness, misfortune, misconduct, etc. This permission is much more inclusive than the one relating to the province.

Whether the proceedings are taken under the one statute or the other, they have to be inaugurated by the municipality in either case. If inaugurated under the statute which permits the province to pay one-half the cost, the provincial authorities may after commitment refuse to make the necessary certification. In this case the municipality must shoulder the whole burden. This has often happened, so that the present trend may be said to be in the direction of exclusive local responsibility in the matter of dependent children. It will be noted of course that it is not mandatory for the municipalities to assume the care of a child: they might place the whole burden on private charity. So far, however, there has been no tendency in this direction.

PRIVATE CHARITY.

Private charity, besides furnishing the management and administration of the insane asylums, the reformatories, and industrial schools above alluded to, fills the rest of the field. It is evident that it has assumed much heavier burdens than in any American state. The writer has in another place * indicated some of the results of this division of work. It will only be possible here to recapitulate exactly how far adequate indoor relief is provided by private charity.

1. There is adequate provision for children and the acutely sick.

2. Inadequate provision for the almshouse population found in every community. There are no almshouses,— either public or private,— no places of final refuge for the abjectly miserable or degraded who do not belong among the delinquents.

3. Fair provision for the respectable aged.

4. Inadequate provision for incurables,— those suffering from chronic diseases, the blind, the feeble-minded, homeless, convalescents, etc.

As a general result, it may be stated that the private institutions suffer from lack of proper classification.

ADVANCE IN CHILD-SAVING.

Conservative Quebec has not been unaffected by the progressive child-helping movement, though it has nothing, of course, which resembles the Ontario system.

The following definite points of advance may be noted: —

1. The trials of children must be held in places apart from the usual court-rooms. In practice they are held in chambers, and are entirely private. This regulation was embodied in the penal code in 1892, antedating most of the children's courts established in the United States.

2. Children must be kept in separate rooms in jails and prisons from other offenders while awaiting trial. They are never incarcerated in any part of the Montreal jail, being confined in that city in an industrial school.

By Section 525 of the new city charter of Montreal it is provided

* Proceedings of Twenty-eighth National Conference of Charities and Correction, pp. 139 *et seq.*

that every time that a child apparently not less than sixteen years of age, and having no relation or other person to take reasonable care of him, is brought before the recorder, and cannot be sent to an industrial or reformatory school, the recorder may send the child to an institution, or place him out as an apprentice or as a domestic servant, or may confide him to a respectable person until he has reached the age of eighteen years.

This will be an exceedingly important piece of legislation whenever a Children's Aid Society is formed.

ADVANCES IN PRIVATE PHILANTHROPY.

In the domain of private philanthropy the principal advances during the last few years have been made in Montreal by the establishment of the following societies: Victorian Order of Nurses, for district nursing; Charity Organization Society; Park and Playgrounds Society, which hopes to establish several model playgrounds in small public squares during the coming summer; and a Decimal Stamp Savings Fund. An urban sanatorium for consumptives is being projected by a number of physicians, with promised financial assistance from several sources.

STATISTICS.

The report of the inspectors of prisons and asylums for 1900 (1901 report not yet published) indicates that the total population in district prisons for that year was 4,753 against 4,626 for 1899. This figure includes both those awaiting trial and those serving sentences for minor offences. It does not include the penitentiary population.

In the five reformatory schools, three for boys and two for girls, there was a grand total of 259 against 228 for 1899. Cost of maintenance, $34,945.70.

In the industrial schools, for the younger children and the less hardened older ones, there was a population of 304 against 354 for 1899. Cost of maintenance, $20,603.41.

There were 2,953 patients supported by provincial and local authorities in the three insane asylums. In 1899 the number was 2,911. The cost of maintenance in 1900 was $321,979.

The percentage of cures to admission for the three institutions are given as follows: —

	1898	1899	1900
St. Jean de Dieu	27.30	25.08	27.49
Quebec	41.62	31.75	27.23
Verdun	43.63	33.33	37.41

The inspectors caution against too sweeping generalizations upon the above table, wisely indicating that there are too many disturbing elements to admit of any comparison of the efficiency of the different institutions or of the work of any one of them in succeeding years. The Verdun Asylum in its report lays special stress upon the moral influences toward cure brought into play by amusement and occupation. The percentage of workers among the inmates in this institution is placed at 65 49-100 per cent. It is 58 per cent. in St. Jean de Dieu.

IV.

State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Correction.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

Recent reports from nearly all the states give the following noteworthy news touching this topic.

In New York State last year, we recall, the governor recommended the abolition of the State Board of Charities and the creation in its place of a board of three, two of them busy state officials *ex-officio*, with one new salaried officer; but the measure, early introduced in the legislature, met with wide-spread and effective opposition, and was dropped. This year the same executive proposed that the boards of managers of all the state hospitals for the insane and of all the state charitable institutions be abolished, the powers of the managers of the eleven insane hospitals to be vested in the State Commission in Lunacy, and the powers of the managers of the thirteen charitable institutions to be vested in one state superintendent of charities. The insane hospitals were already under the sole supervision of the commission, almost under its control, the hospital attorneys being appointed by it, and no repairs or improvements or estimates for supplies and expenditures being made without its approval. The charitable institutions, if under the control of one man, would still be subject to the supervision of the State Board of Charities. The one man would be recommended by the board to the governor. For each of the institutions or hospitals local boards of visitors would be appointed to make frequent visits and reports. The objection of the governor to the existing system was, briefly summed up, that it resulted in waste of money and unnecessary duplication of institutions and officials. To the suggested changes strong opposition was made by representatives of a number

of prominent charitable agencies, under the lead of the State Charities Aid Association. The opposition claimed that real economy would not result from the change, and that boards of managers for the various institutions and hospitals were of the greatest value, representing much intelligent and faithful service for the inmates and the public. The plan of the one official to control the charitable institutions was dropped, but that for the complete control of the insane hospitals by the Commission in Lunacy was made a law. A board of visitors has been or is to be appointed for each hospital. The office of "Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities" was created, in whose hands are placed the power of control over the expenditures of the state charitable institutions and the State School for the Blind and the Elmira Reformatory, which had been exercised through a bureau of the state comptroller's department. The supervisor is to hold office for five years, and be paid $6,000 yearly, besides necessary expenses. His duties include careful examination into the physical condition and financial management of each of the institutions twice a year at least, with reports to the governor twice and to the legislature once a year. Monthly estimates for expenses must be submitted to him, and he may revise them. He may arrange with the boards of managers for purchase of staple articles by joint contract. By the same law creating this supervision each board of managers of these same institutions, in addition to its duties as previously prescribed, is required to inspect its institution by a majority of its members, and make a detailed report in duplicate to the governor and the State Board of Charities at least once a month. Also, plans for unusual repairs or improvements at the state charitable institutions and the School for the Blind must be approved by the governor, the comptroller, and the president of the State Board of Charities, or two of them.

In Virginia a provision of the new constitution changes the method of managing the state hospitals for the insane. Each of these institutions has been under the general control of a board of directors, consisting of nine men appointed by the governor by and with the consent of the Senate, the terms of office being three years, three going out every year. These boards had the power of appointing the superintendent, assistant officers, and employees of their respective hospitals. The new constitutional law provides for a board of three for each institution appointed by the governor, their

terms of office being six years. Each board has immediate supervision of its institution. The boards of all the four hospitals constitute together a general board of control. They serve without pay. The general board appoints the superintendents, the special board appoints the assistant officers, the superintendents appoint all the employees of their respective institutions. The terms of the officers have been increased from two to four years. A commissioner is provided for, to be selected by the governor for a term of four years. He is *ex-officio* chairman of the general board and special boards. His duty is chiefly to give a general oversight to the finances, expenditures, and to see that the accounts of the various institutions are kept according to some uniform system. These changes were made with the aim of removing the affairs of the insane hospitals as far as possible from partisan influences. In Alabama the second hospital for the insane, whose establishment was authorized last year, to be for the negro insane, has been placed very naturally under the board of trustees who have been administering well the first state hospital.

In Maryland the Board of State Aid and Charities has made its first report to the legislature. This board was created chiefly to take the place of the hurried hearings by the legislative committees on applications of institutions for state aid. The hope was that it might be able to bring about some true economy. Its report, suggesting on the whole a decrease in institutions aided and in the total sum appropriated, showed little effort to get at principles which might govern action and little discrimination based on thorough knowledge of institutions. It was empowered to visit, and given a secretary and enough money to do much educational work had it been so disposed. Its members were men of prominence and affairs, but they had given comparatively little thought to details of charitable work. Their report was practically disregarded, no institutions being dropped from the list of former beneficiaries and fourteen being added, with an increased sum total. In North Carolina the board of three examiners, provided for by law last year, will this autumn begin their work of reporting to the governor and assembly on the financial management of state institutions, the disposition of the last appropriations, and the immediate needs.

No state "board of control" has been established during the year. The Minnesota board took office August 1. There has been

some talk, chiefly in the state-houses, of the need of such boards in New Jersey, Kentucky, Missouri, Nebraska, and California. A bill introduced in the Kentucky legislature to provide one was not supported by members or by the public. In New Jersey the retiring governor advocated the creation of such a board in his last message to the legislature; but no action was taken upon it, and the suggestion was generally regarded with disfavor.

No supervisory state board of charities has been established this year. In Virginia an effort was made to have one provided under the new state constitution; but the condition which would have been attached, that no salaried officers could be employed, made the action inadvisable, as hindering future possible development by legislation. Friends of progressive charity work in Louisiana, California, and Oregon, are working for supervisory boards. From New Hampshire come, perhaps, the most cheering words in the growth of public appreciation of the work of a recently established state board.

Of movements for enlarging the power of state boards of supervision, the most interesting one is that in Ohio, where a bill has been introduced in the legislature providing for the appointment of a state agency under the board for placing out children from the county homes. This is especially significant, because the Ohio board has stood year by year as the exponent of a board working wholly by education, through advice and persuasion; but the example of the results accomplished by the Indiana state agency for placing children has evidently persuaded the Ohio board that executive power sometimes is very useful in bringing local officials to adequate action for the improvement of opportunities for good work. In Massachusetts the State Board of Charity, which by recent legislation now publishes annually a report of all charitable corporations in the state, based on written returns from them, asked this year for legislation to allow it to visit these institutions, with the purpose of informing the public of their work. A number of leading charity workers urged the importance of such action, and a bill was favorably reported by the joint legislative committee; but opposition developed, and the matter was referred to the next General Court. The Board of Charities and Correction of South Dakota has been required to investigate at least once a year, and to report to the governor the work of the Children's Home Society of that state. This law was suggested by the superintendent of the society, with

the feeling, as he put it, that a state should be protected against bogus charities as much as from bogus insurance companies. The Iowa Board of Control, not at its own suggestion, has been empowered and instructed to have under inspection all private institutions in which children are received for the purpose of being cared for and put out in families, and to prescribe certain rules for their conduct. The State Board of Charities and Correction of Colorado, under a law passed last year, is now charged with the duty of issuing or withholding licenses to all private charities which have the custody of persons, and is now gathering preliminary reports on forms issued by it. In North Carolina a private sanitarium for the insane, recently opened, has been placed by statute, which applies to any similar institution which may be established, under the direct supervision of the State Board of Charities, which is to inspect it semi-annually, and from which it must have a license.

Of the work done in Cuba under our military occupation, which has just ended, three points of exceeding interest should be noted here. Under the system laid down by the military governor, with the advice, on the spot, of the ablest adviser, probably, whom he could call upon, Mr. Homer Folks, now the commissioner of charities of Greater New York City, the Department of Charities of Cuba has exercised a reasonable supervision over *all* charitable institutions, public or private; has, secondly, withdrawn gradually all subsidies from the state to private institutions, in order that the private foundations shall keep their activities within the limits of their own resources, and that the resources of the state's treasury shall be used as far as possible for adequate care of the classes of persons for whom the state undertakes to care directly; and, thirdly, in the exercise of the doctrine of *cy-près*, which was embodied in the Spanish Beneficencia Law of 1875, has suppressed eight institutions whose purposes, once useful perhaps, had become unnecessary, and has attached their endowments to more vigorous and needed institutions. We may note also that in Porto Rico the law which went into effect only a year ago, which gives the control of those few general public charitable institutions, all at San Juan, to one director of charities, requires him or his agent to inspect the institutions at least once in two months, together with one member of the executive council and a citizen of the island, designated by the governor. Once a year an inspection is to be made by the

director or his agent of the charitable institutions belonging to cities and villages, and a copy of the report of the inspection shall be sent the governing body of each institution. Annual reports are to be made to the director by all institutions; and at any time the governor may order a thorough examination to be made by three citizens of the island, designated for the purpose, of the condition and conduct of any private institution of charity where children or adults are cared for or confined.

Such are the chief items of interest the past year, touching state supervision and administration, which have come to the notice of the committee. If, in connection with these, we read over the reports from states to the last few National Conferences, we shall notice several marked tendencies of the times which raise questions of much interest and pressing importance. The Conference wishes its committees to be very practical in their reports; but often the most practical thing which can be done is to look backward and forward to see, if we can, the real significance of things. In the field of charity and correction the tendency is plainly in the direction of the increasing exercise of administrative power and of supervision by the state. The agents of the whole community are now exercising power in matters which before were either left to the local units of government or were wholly neglected. This tendency, which is seen in every field of interest, follows naturally from the growth of communities and their closer relation to each other. But it means, also, that the leaders in charitable thought and action see that local interest in charity is often weak or ignorant of the best standards, and that on the sovereign state rests the solemn duty of insuring that the forms and powers of administration are the best available ones.

Considering this tendency to greater activity on the part of state governments, with the increase in population and in the number of charitable institutions, and with the growing diversity of agencies owing to better differentiation of the various classes, let us ask the following questions, even if we cannot add to all of them our definite answers.

To what extent can a state "board of control" manage institutions for different classes advantageously? The answer depends on whether a state can secure the services of a reasonable number of persons for intelligent and faithful work, some to care for and think

about one class of dependants, and other groups to care for and think about other classes. If it can secure them, it should. Each institution should be under an expert superintendent. There is no reason to believe that one board of control for all will secure better superintendents than the various boards of control can, if they be made up of intelligent and faithful persons; and the influence of experts on their respective boards must result in more general education and interest in charitable and correctional work. One board of control for all or many state institutions is not a necessity in order to bring about saving; for desirable saving, as by joint contracts, may be made easily by arrangement between institutions or through one state fiscal officer.

Secondly, with the increasing tendency to state supervision of charitable agencies, what is the best state agency for supervision? In a small community, as the District of Columbia, for example, a combination of duties is not unnatural, that the board which controls the public almshouse should supervise private agencies used by the district; but we should remember that such supervision is based chiefly on the idea of public oversight following public money. The ideas on which a reasonable supervision of all charities rest are rather the protection of the charitable, the protection of helpless human beings, the common welfare. The inspection of private hospitals for the insane by the state has no connection with public funds. In a large and progressive state there are usually several state agencies in some form, as lunacy commissions, boards of health, factory inspection, insurance commissions, boards of charities, for the protection of individuals and for the common welfare. In such a community the supervision of charitable institutions will be best done by a body which is not burdened by the first duty of control of many institutions. Two considerations, also, must be taken into account. A board of control, which does the supervising of other agencies, is not supervised itself by any public body which can really know much of its work. Grand juries and local boards of visitors have little knowledge of the best standards. They may discover flagrant abuses, but they are not likely to be helpful in suggestions for better work. Nor are busy legislative committees or governors likely to be able to supervise adequately. Here is a notable inconsistency. And, secondly, a body which supervises, especially in our communities with citizens

of different racial customs and different forms of religious faith, should be of moderate size, and very representative of the whole community. If our governors do not appoint such bodies, are those same governors likely to appoint better men to small boards of control? Let us get clearly in mind that the chief duties of a board of control, whether of one or of several institutions, and the duties of a state board of supervision are not the same. The less the laws try to make them identical, the better. Nor need the existence of one board drive out the existence of the other.

After all, the chief matter to keep in mind is the effect which different methods of state supervision and administration will have on securing quickest a public interest in these things, which shall be general and enlightened, and therefore likely to last. The method which will best accomplish that is the method by which the most persons will learn that charity, public or private, is something more than mere decent care of the ill, the destitute, and the offender. The failure to distinguish between saving and true economy has prevented much progress. The administration and supervision of charity which this Conference should stand for will be economical because, while more money will be spent to-day, the aim will be to treat needy individuals so as to prevent the increase of pauperism and crime, and to rouse and educate more of the benevolent public to its civic duty, to take part intelligently in that great work.

JEFFREY R. BRACKETT.
AMOS W. BUTLER.
HUGH F. FOX.
LEONTINE LINCOLN.
GRACE W. MINNS.
CHARLES P. NEILL.
SIMON W. ROSENDALE.

Mr. William P. Lyon, of Wisconsin, could not sign the report, as he believes in one state board of control charged with administrative and supervisory functions. The other members of the committee, Mr. Ernest Lister, of the state of Washington, Rev. James W. Orman, of Tennessee, and Mr. B. H. Osterhoudt, of Porto Rico, have not been heard from concerning the report.

STATE SUPERVISION OF PRIVATE CHARITIES.

BY HASTINGS H. HART, LL.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT OF ILLINOIS CHILDREN'S HOME AND AID SOCIETY.

Has the state the right or the duty to supervise private charities, organized by voluntary effort and supported, in whole or in part, by voluntary contributions? If so, on what ground, by what agencies, and to what extent?

It is a delicate and often an ungracious thing to interfere between a giver and the object of his bounty, to dictate to an individual or an association how they shall use their own money in efforts to help their unfortunate fellow-men. Yet, on reflection, we cannot avoid the conclusion that it is both the right and the duty of the state to exercise a proper supervision over at least some private charities. The report of the Committee on State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Correction shows a decided tendency in the direction of an increase of such supervision.

The right and the duty of public supervision of voluntary organizations rests upon several plain and familiar principles: —

First. It is the duty of the state to follow funds appropriated from the public treasury, and to see that they are applied to their intended purpose, and that they are economically and efficiently used. In many states, like New York, Pennsylvania, and California, it is customary to appropriate public funds from the state, county, or municipal treasury for the partial or entire support of institutions controlled by private corporations. It is not necessary at this time to discuss the wisdom of this policy. It prevails widely, and millions of dollars are so applied each year. The state has no right to give blindly to any institution, however well administered, without careful inquiry how its funds are used; and, while this duty is often neglected or imperfectly performed, the right has pretty nearly ceased to be questioned.

Second. It is the right and the duty of the state to supervise private charities in the exercise of its police powers, for the protection of the life and health of those who are under the care of voluntary organizations, as well as those who are employed in caring for them. In

the exercise of such police powers public authority has gone much farther in the supervision of other private enterprises than in the supervision of charities. We interfere with business enterprises by a rigid supervision of insurance, banking, mining, and manufacturing. We even dictate to druggists, plumbers, etc., as to who their employees shall be. We require a public certificate for lawyers, physicians, veterinary surgeons, pilots, engineers. We interfere with the liberty of individuals by quarantine, vaccination, and other health regulations, and by the compulsory isolation of persons suffering from contagious diseases; and the public submits with increasing cheerfulness to such control as its good results become manifest. But there has been a feeling in some quarters that charitable organizations were peculiarly sacred, and that, in view of the good work in which they are engaged, they ought not to be subjected to the annoyance and implied criticism of the same kind of inspection which is given to an insurance company, a factory, or a job of plumbing. So, private hospitals have been allowed to occupy unsanitary premises, where the patients contracted worse diseases than those that brought them there. Helpless invalids and little children have been congregated in fire-traps. Little babies have been ruthlessly taken from their mothers' breasts, herded together in unventilated rooms, cared for by ignorant nurses, fed with improper food, have died by hundreds when they ought to have lived; and pious matrons, in monthly reports, have discoursed upon the mysterious ways of Providence in gathering these little lambs into the heavenly fold.

It is beginning to be seen that the duties of the health department do not cease at the outer door of the hospital, the orphan asylum, or the home for foundlings; and already there has been a notable improvement in the sanitary administration of such institutions.

Third. It is the duty of the state to supervise private charities because of the helpless condition of their beneficiaries. We have no right to leave the insane, the feeble-minded, the sick little children, the ignorant, and the unfortunate to the tender mercies of whatever quack may come along. These people are sick people, physically, mentally, or morally diseased; and we have no more right to let social charlatans practise upon their minds and souls than to allow medical quacks to practise upon their bodies.

"Canst thou minister to a mind diseased?" asked Shakspere. It

is appalling to see the boldness with which people devoid of training undertake to minister to the social ills of the community. If the operatives in mines and factories need the protection of the state to save them from injury, how much more the helpless inmates of our charitable institutions! The time is coming, and is near at hand, when we shall inquire as carefully into the qualifications of the matron or care-taker in an orphan asylum as we now do into the qualifications of a plumber or a horse-doctor, when we shall no more allow a child to be starved or drugged to death in a baby farm, as we now do, than to allow an insane patient to be beaten to death in an insane asylum, as we used to do.

Fourth. Public supervision is necessary in order to protect the benevolent public, including not only the givers, but also the institutions themselves and those who administer them. Millions of money have been wasted in well-meant but fruitless endeavor. A millionaire, a generous giver, related with tears the disappointments which he had met in his efforts to do good with his money. Those who wish to give have no adequate means of judging as to the efficiency or worthiness of most of the organizations which appeal for aid. Deserving charities have to go through years of struggle before they can gain public confidence. Unneeded "charities" fatten and thrive because they are shrewdly exploited and vigorously advertised. Fraudulent enterprises choose a taking name, and bleed the generous public year after year with impunity. In most of the states a charter can be obtained without question by any organization proposing to do charity work, without the slightest inquiry being made as to the need of the enterprise or the character, financial responsibility, and experience of the founders. But it is beginning to be recognized that the state is responsible for the corporations which it creates. For example, the legislature of Illinois in 1899 enacted a law which provides as follows: —

All associations receiving children under this act shall be subject to the same visitation, inspection, and supervision by the Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities as are the public charitable institutions of this state; and it shall be the duty of the said Board of Commissioners to pass annually upon the fitness of every such association as may receive, or desire to receive, children under the provisions of this act, and every such association shall, annually, at such time as said board shall direct, make report thereto,

showing its condition, management, and competency to adequately care for such children as are or may be committed to it, and such other facts as said board may require. And upon said board being satisfied that such association is competent, and has adequate facilities to care for such children, it shall issue to the same a certificate to that effect, which certificate shall continue in force for one year unless sooner revoked.

No association whose objects may embrace the caring for dependent, neglected, or delinquent children, shall hereafter be incorporated unless the proposed articles of incorporation shall first have been submitted to the examination of the Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, and the Secretary of State shall not issue a certificate of incorporation unless there shall be first filed in his office the certificate of said board that, in its judgment, the incorporators are reputable and responsible persons, the proposed work is needed, and the incorporation of such an association is desirable and for the public good.

The law further provides that no child shall be committed by the courts to any association which has not been certified as above.

The legislature of Colorado enacted a law in 1901 authorizing the State Board of Charities and Corrections to require reports from and to issue licenses to private eleemosynary societies and corporations, renewable annually. Such licenses may be revoked for failure to report and, presumably, for other good cause.

In the state of Iowa the State Board of Control has been empowered and instructed to have under inspection all private institutions in which children are received for the purpose of being cared for and put in families, and to prescribe certain rules for their conduct. In the states of Indiana and Michigan, children placed in families by voluntary organization are subject to state supervision and visitation. The work of the public supervising officers in these two states has been, on the whole, satisfactory to the voluntary societies.

So far as reported, North Carolina is the only Southern state which has any systematic supervision of private charitable institutions. The state makes appropriation for several private institutions; for example, the Oxford Orphan Asylum (Masonic), for which the state appropriates $10,000 per year. The governor appoints three directors, and the State Board of Charities exercises supervision. A similar supervision is exercised over the colored asylum near Oxford, to which the state appropriates $5,000 per year, and over the Broadoaks Sanitarium, a private institution for the insane. The statute

provides for similar supervision of any institutions which may be created for the care of epileptics, feeble-minded persons, or inebriates.

In the states of Minnesota, Wisconsin, South Dakota, and Illinois, and probably other states, the supervision which exists was established with the assent, and in several cases at the suggestion, of the representatives of private organizations affected by the law. Such supervision tends to strengthen public confidence in the institutions. It tends also to increase the sense of responsibility of the officers of such institutions and to increase their efficiency.

The question by what agency supervision shall be exercised must be answered by circumstances. Supervision relative to the sanitary condition can probably be exercised satisfactorily by local boards of health; although those who advocate public supervision of baby farms and similar institutions have generally favored the exercise of this power by agents of the commonwealth. Supervision of the administration of private charities has usually been maintained by a State Board of Charities. So far as the writer is informed, no public supervision has been established in any state where there is not a State Board of Charities.

In reply to the question as to what should be the extent of the public supervision of private institutions, we may say, first, such supervision should be confined to what is necessary in order to secure the ends already stated. The state should not take the administration of private organizations out of the hands of their directors unless it should be found necessary after judicial inquiry. It may be necessary to appoint a receiver of a charitable institution for reasons similar to those which would lead to a receivership for a business corporation.

The public supervision should be, first of all, impartial and reasonable. To this end it must be free from partisan influences, and must keep clear of local and petty strife. A wise supervising agency will assume that the officers of the private organization are acting in good faith for the accomplishment of the benevolent work for which they are organized, and will hold to that assumption unless there is clear evidence to the contrary.

A wise supervising agency will be sympathetic. It will endeavor to work with the private organization, and not against it. For example, it is a wise and necessary rule of child-saving organizations

that they will not make known to the parents and relatives of children who have been placed in family homes, the whereabouts of their children. Experience proves that the violation of this rule almost invariably results in the removal of the child from its foster home. A state board charged with the supervision of children placed in homes, having received a report showing the whereabouts of such a child, revealed the whereabouts of the child to its parents, on their application, without consulting the society which had placed the child. The impropriety of this course was immediately apparent, and the action has not since been repeated.

If defects or abuses are discovered by the supervising agency, they can usually be remedied by wise and kindly advice. Such abuses usually arise from ignorance, inexperience, or poverty, seldom from wilfulness or dishonesty.

It should always be remembered that time and patience are essential elements in the development of social institutions. Five years is a short time for such development. Wisdom must often be gained by slow and painful experience. It is not reasonable to demand that people entering newly upon the discharge of such responsibilities shall immediately acquire the wisdom to discharge them wisely. Every good institution has an individuality of its own, and has to develop gradually to its best estate.

If the defects are laid plainly and clearly before the governing board of the institution, they will usually be glad to take steps for their removal. Allowance should be made for the obstacles and difficulties which may necessarily delay a reform, and a reasonable time should be allowed. If no responsible governing board exists, pressure should be brought to bear to secure the creation of such a board. If, after a reasonable time, steps are not taken to remove the trouble, publicity will be found a wholesome remedy; but, in the great majority of cases, relief can be secured without such decided action.

PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS AND PUBLIC SUPERVISION.

BY REV. D. J. M MAHON,

GENERAL SUPERVISOR OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES OF NEW YORK CITY.

I can agree fully with the paper by Mr. Hart. I do not think that there is any private charity organization existing to-day that ought to exist which would fear inspection by any state board of charities. If it does fear it, then there is reason why it should have a reasonable inspection. But we must go further. The question is the state supervision of private charities. Mr. Hart spoke of private charities receiving public aid. I would make another distinction. Private charities are of two kinds: first, those receiving public aid; and, secondly, those receiving no public aid. As to the first, the state supervision of private charities receiving aid and public funds, we agree that there should be something in the way of inspection and visitation of such private charities in order to obtain the two great aims; viz.: helpfulness to the beneficiaries of charity and true economy to the state in its payment for such care. Now, to obtain these two great aims, what means shall be used? for that is the question, after all. The advantages are worthy, and should be obtained. The end, however, does not justify the means. The means must be just and rightful as well as the end. The question is to find a line of distinction between the state's power and the individual's power. That line is very hard to draw, to say just where the state shall come in and just where the power of the individual shall end. (The private charity whether controlled by one person or by a board of directors, stands before the state as an individual, physical or moral.)

It is a question that has been before our general government from the very beginning, and has caused very much litigation. Virtue stands in the centre. While the real line of demarkation cannot always be easily found, there are matters, however, in which justice is clearly placed on one side or the other, and it can be determined by the agreements made. So in the present instance.

When private charities are receiving public funds, whether they

are from state, county, municipality, or township, there is a contract made between the public and the private institution; and, according to the terms of that contract, framed by the State Board of Charities, the investigation should proceed. The state has a right to see, when it gives over any of its dependents to the care of an institution, that the contract shall be fulfilled. It should see that the beneficiaries of charity receive proper clothing, are well lodged, have proper food, proper amusement and recreation, and that they receive it in a charitable and kindly manner. If the institution fulfil its part of the contract, then the state on its side must give funds for the support of the dependents according to agreement.

Shall the state come in and examine how this money is disbursed? I know that no institution in the state of New York objects to proper supervision of its finances; but we are asking the question, What is right, what is the proper ground? for it is only on truth and justice that you can build a suitable right. Because it gives so much money to the support of dependents in an institution and sees by strict investigation that these dependents have everything that could reasonably be asked for, why should it go behind the returning board and ask how it has spent the money received on the contract, any more than it should go to a company of paving contractors, working on the streets, and, after inspection of the contracted work, would see that the job was done well and properly, demand from the firm how it has spent the money received for the work?

Now it may be said that the state should strive to find the most economical method of supporting children, and should use this means. I am sure no institution will object to showing its accounts, but the state has not the right to demand it, unless reasons of wrong-doing demand such action. The price is a question for the open market. The experience of years tells to a nicety what should be the cost.

How far shall this inspection of the care and support go? Shall it change the system in the institution? Shall it make all institutions in the state conform to one principle of action, to one mode of government, to one set of detailed rules? It has as little right to do so as it has to govern the different families in the state, and make them conform to one line of action in regard to their children. It has the right to require changes needed for their proper care. But if it sees that the institutions in which the children are brought up

are conducted according to all proper demands, it has no right to control, modify, and change what is in the institution.

The state as a universal provider must leave autonomy to the institution, which is the moral family of the dependants. "*De minimis non curat prætor.*" One honorarium and system will suit one place and not another, according to the directive powers.

When it comes to the question of state supervision of private charities that are purely and wholly private, we enter another question. There are charities over which I think we will all agree that the state should have no supervision, as when I give alms in the poor-box or in the collection in the pew. Let us make distinctions in the meaning of purely private charities. First, there are those purely personal charities just mentioned. Second, there are various societies for the help of the poor and the afflicted without having their custody. Third, there are the institutions which have such care, support, and custody. As to the first there can be little difficulty. The second, such as the care of "Needy Families in their Homes," does not seem to justify any action on the part of the state, as we shall see farther. As to the third class, since it comprises those wholly dependent, the state may claim the right, First, to grant or refuse the incorporation of such institutions according to the ability of the incorporators to fulfil all requirements; Second, to obtain from them statistics, only as far as to determine the number of dependents in the state. But it has no right to enter into the private history of these individuals. My history is mine. If I am not a charge upon the state, why should the state come to me and ask me about my history, assuming that I am conducting myself in a proper manner? Third, the state has the exercise of police power, the power of entering into institutions where there is maladministration of any serious nature, and of righting the wrongs, or, rather, in the first instance making those who are in charge of the institution right the wrongs. The question of supervision of private charities by the state has agitated various states. Some Boards have thought to establish the same power over these charities as over those receiving public aid. Massachusetts tried to make this a statutory law during the past year, as the chairman's report tells us. It was thought that this power existed in the State of New York; but the Court of Appeals ruled otherwise, and later it failed to be enacted as a statute law. It is said the reason why this power should be

given is the abuses occurring in these institutions. That is an example of the *fallacia accidentis*. Because there are a few abuses, the whole thing must be overturned. Because some things are poor, therefore, every blessed thing must be inspected. We might say under this arrangement that an inspection should enter into every family, for some parents abuse their families. These abuses, on the other hand, are not frequent. They are but few, and therefore should not be the ground for a state supervision of all.

It is true that private insane asylums are visited and inspected by state authority, but there are special reasons. The past history of the care of the insane justified such power. Then the danger of placing innocent and sane people in them by unscrupulous persons, as well as the likelihood of frequent cruelty or retaliation by keepers of obstinate cases, make this power a proper one to be employed. The insane are a class apart.

It is said that the dependents are wards of the state, and, therefore, the state should see how these wards are taken care of. But, if they are wards of the state, they are, first, wards of the foster family or institution; and the state has no more care of them than of other children. The progression of power is: first, the family; second, the individual; and, third, the state. Man is not made for the state, but the state is made for man. Man does not get his rights from the state. We will not agree that man by his past ever has given up to the state such power over him. Man, therefore, has the right to bestow charity; and the state shall protect him from abuses, such as will arise in all human frailty. The individual has two rights before the state: the right, first, to happiness. That is guaranteed by the Constitution; and, in the pursuit of that happiness, he has power to bestow his charity as he will, and cannot be rightly annoyed unless for the common good. Second, he has his dignity as a man, which precedes any claim of citizenship. The state must not interfere where there will be tension of the rights of the individual.

"Nay, if the scale do turn
But in the estimation of a hair,"

a change must be made. We know there is great danger of going too far in giving power to the state. Socialism can arise from the acts of those who would push centralization into the domain of individual rights, as much as from the blatant demagogues decried by all reasonable men.

We cannot look upon the state as the source of our rights, nor the end of our aims and views, and we must not permit the laws on matters of charity to override personal rights, as do the laws on education. In the State of New York to-day no parent has the right to educate his child as he pleases. If the law were enforced, he must educate it according to the plans and projects of the State Board of Education; and the Board of Regents has almost despotic powers for the regulation of the higher institutions of education.

The State Board of Charities has a large and legitimate sphere, but it must not be extended beyond proper limits.

THE WORK IN IOWA.

ADDRESS BY HON. JOHN COWNIE,

CHAIRMAN, IOWA BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

I have listened with a great deal of interest to the report of Mr. Brackett and his criticism in regard to boards of control of state institutions. I do not think Mr. Brackett is fully advised in regard to the work being done in Iowa. Prior to 1898 each state institution had its own governing board; and, while there had been no scandals in connection with their management, there was a desire to consolidate the work, take the management entirely out of politics, and place it on a business basis. To this end an act was passed by the legislature creating a Board of Control of State Institutions to consist of three men, not more than two of whom should belong to the same political party. Consequently, it is non-partisan.

Naturally there was a good deal of opposition to a board of control composed of only three men; and it was said that such a board would control the politics of the state, and that the state institutions would suffer by the change. But these forebodings have not been fulfilled, and the Board of Control is stronger to-day in Iowa than it was the first year of its existence.

When each institution had a separate governing board, the members met once a month or once a quarter to look after the affairs of

the institutions, taking their own business with them, and of course hurried home as soon as possible, the real management devolving upon the executive officers of the several institutions. Now there are three men in session every working day of the year from eight o'clock in the morning till five o'clock and later every night, devoting their entire time to looking after the interests of those intrusted to their care.

The office of the board is connected with all the state institutions by long-distance telephones, and thus keeps in close touch with the management, ready at all times to counsel and advise on any matter that may arise.

A system of book-keeping has been devised that insures a check on every expenditure, and the books in the office of the board show at all times the amount of stores on hand at the respective institutions. As a further check, a copy of the dietary of every meal is forwarded to the board each week, with the cost, all sworn to by the persons in charge of the respective kitchens.

Practically, all purchases are made through the office of the board; and, by combining the requirements of all the institutions and purchasing at wholesale, a great saving has been effected. The board made a saving the first year of its existence of more than $175,000, and the care, food, and clothing of the wards of the state were better than ever before. On one of my visits to a penitentiary I asked one of the prisoners, "How are you faring now?" and he promptly replied: "First-rate. You are running a mighty good hotel now: it is the best I have yet struck, and I have been in five of them." This man had evidently been in Mr. Brackett's state, and he admitted that the Iowa hotel for convicts is superior to those of Maryland.

It has been said that it is impossible to get three men properly qualified to manage and control hospitals, educational institutions, and penitentiaries, the requirements being entirely different. We have found no difficulty whatever on account of the changed conditions of the several institutions. In visiting the hospitals, conversing with the patients, and keeping our eyes and ears open, it does not take long to ascertain whether or not the patients are being properly treated. When we visit the Soldiers' Home and converse with the old veterans, if there is anything wrong, we soon know it. It does not require long to determine whether the superintendent is harsh

or kind to the girls and boys at the industrial schools and the Soldiers' Orphans' Home. The members of the board take a lively interest in the progress of the blind and the deaf in securing an education, and new progressive methods of teaching are continually being introduced and new industries installed.

It is no difficult matter to tell whether the wards of the state are properly clad and receiving an abundance of good food carefully prepared, with the best of care at the hands of officers and employees. At the Iowa Soldiers' Home radical changes have been made by the board since taking charge of that institution. Formerly all the cooking was done by the old soldiers themselves, and the waiters at the tables and even the nurses were old soldiers. Now all is changed, and we have women cooks and women nurses and over a score of the finest-looking girls in the state waiting on the tables. Linen tablecloths have taken the place of the bare tables; silver-plated knives, forks, and spoons have taken the place of the cheap iron and pewter articles formerly used; and vitrified china, such as is found at the best hotels, is in daily use.

The old soldiers appreciate what is being done for them in making the institution a true home, with the influence of good women around them; and we scarcely ever hear a complaint on our visits to that institution, either in regard to food, clothing, or care.

In addition to the institutions originally placed under the Board of Control, the legislature two years ago gave the board supervision over the private hospitals of the state where insane people are confined, also over all of the poorhouses where insane patients are kept. The private hospitals for insane are all owned and managed by the Catholic Sisters, and they had grave fears as to the result of a visitation and examination by the members of the Board of Control. But a single visit proved that their fears were groundless, and these institutions profit by the suggestions and interest of the board in their welfare; and now they have more patients than ever.

When we visited our county poor farms where the insane are kept, we found some terrible conditions. As a rule, the steward is chosen by the board of supervisors for the reason that he is a good farmer and careful financier. If he can make a good showing at the end of the year in regard to expenditure, he is considered a success, the care and treatment accorded the patients being of secondary importance. Under the new law the board is required to visit all

county houses where insane patients are kept; and, if it is found that they are not properly cared for, they can be transferred to a state hospital. At one county house I found a poor dement who was tied to a tree in summer and to a bed-post in winter, because there was no one to care for him. That patient is now in a state hospital, clothed as a man, and has his freedom like other patients. Another patient was found confined in a cage, and had been kept there for years, because, when given his freedom, he persisted in running away; but this condition no longer exists.

I merely mention these facts to show what the Board of Control is doing in Iowa, and I may be pardoned for taking a just pride in the success that has attended our efforts to better the condition of those intrusted to our care with the least possible expense to the tax-payers of our state.

Mr. Brackett stated that in Maryland the legislature refused to make an appropriation for a much-needed cottage for feeble-minded children. In Iowa the Board of Control experiences no difficulty in regard to securing needed appropriations. In visiting the several state institutions, the board becomes familiar with the conditions existing, and reports to the legislature through the governor such recommendations in regard to needed improvements as are necessary, with an approximate estimate of the cost. The members of the board never lobby, never solicit the support of a single member of the legislature for an appropriation, but remain in their office, attending to their duties, appearing before the respective committees on appropriations only when invited. The members of the legislature go to the office of the board to counsel and advise in regard to the wants of the institutions, with the result that practically every dollar asked for the respective institutions has been granted. In Maryland, with no Board of Control, after no doubt the most persistent lobbying, the legislature refused to make an appropriation for a single cottage for the feeble-minded children; while in Iowa the Board of Control asked for an appropriation for two cottages for a like institution, and the appropriation was made without a dissenting vote. Near the close of the last session of the legislature a building at one of the state institutions was destroyed by fire, and it became necessary to ask for an additional appropriation of $15,000. I went before the respective committees on appropriations, stated the circumstances and the need of a new building, and the appropriation was promptly made.

But this very confidence reposed in the Board of Control by the legislature gives added responsibility to the members ; and the greatest care is taken to retain the confidence of the law-makers by holding all desired appropriations to the minimum, and, when appropriations are made, to see that value received is secured for every dollar expended.

These are some of the advantages in having a Board of Control of state institutions,— no lobbying for appropriations, no politics in state institutions, faithful and efficient service required from officers and employees, and all working together for the best interests of the wards of the state, at the least possible expense to the taxpayers.

THE EXPERIENCE IN INDIANA.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER,

SECRETARY, BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES OF INDIANA.

What Mr. Cownie has said concerning Iowa gives you some idea of the changes that have been wrought in that state. They have been from unsupervised charities to supervised charities. Iowa had fourteen state institutions under fourteen boards without any supervision. Since they have been put under one administrative board, called a Board of Control, certain results have been accomplished. We had exactly the same experience in Indiana. Fourteen years ago Indiana's state institutions were all under separate boards, unsupervised. To-day they are still under separate boards, but are overseen by a supervisory board. Iowa has accomplished substantially the same financial results we have. I could tell you of the reduction in expenses in the management of these institutions. At the same rate of expense of thirteen years ago, we should to-day be expending about $340,000 more than we are in conducting our state institutions. That is one of the results of supervision. The institutions are also more efficiently managed, are on a higher plane, are caring for more of the dependants in a better way. Altogether, they are accomplishing better results than they did before. All of our county institutions and state institutions that receive any support

whatever, directly or indirectly from the public funds, are supervised; and the results are good, as any one who knows the facts will testify. Almost without exception I can say that the very satisfactory results wrought by the Board of Control in Iowa in the conduct of the institutions of that state have been brought about in Indiana by the supervision of the Board of State Charities. We believe it is a great advantage to have a separate board for each institution. These are the institutions of the people. Those who are in them are their friends and relatives. Every citizen in the state has the right, and should have the right, to visit these institutions to see how his friends and relatives are getting on. But they cannot all do it. So it is proper that we should have representatives of the people who may visit them in their stead. These are persons who represent not the official authority of the state, but who represent the people of the state, to see that the institutions are properly conducted, that the inmates are properly cared for, that public funds are properly expended, and notably to see that the citizens of the state know what is being done. One of the great functions of a supervisory board is to keep the public in touch with the work in progress, and to educate the people concerning public charities.

We must care for all these charges,— the insane, the epileptic, the idiotic, the pauper, and the criminal. We must care for all those who become dependent and who are defective, but that is not all. We must study conditions as they exist. We wish to know the causes of pauperism, of crime. That is very necessary if we are to know how the next step is to be taken. If we can see from the result of the study of these causes what things are to be done to prevent them, we shall be prepared for action. The question of the prevention of pauperism, of crime, of degeneracy, has had the consideration of our board for years. The steps that have been taken as a result are known to many of you.

Further than that, these problems as they present themselves are problems of the whole. They do not relate alone to state or local institutions, but they lead back into the social conditions of the community. It is essential that the people shall know the purpose of these institutions, what is being done in them, how they are conducted, and the results that they have achieved. The people should know these facts, that they may co-operate in the care of those in distress and in the enforcement of such laws as relate to compulsory

education, child labor, the care of dependent children, the administration of poor relief, so that the population of these institutions may not be increased unnecessarily. The prevention of public dependence is our greatest work. I would refer to one subject and the results obtained. Six years ago the annual cost of official outdoor relief and medical assistance in Indiana was $630,000. As a result of the study of conditions, the Board of State Charities recommended a change in the law. One law after another, bearing on the administration of outdoor relief, was successively passed to secure by progressive stages the desired results. After six years the amount given was reduced to $210,000 a year, and the testimony of all was that the poor were never so well cared for as they were under the new laws. Many were fearful that the poor asylum population would increase, as a consequence. The result is that each year the number of inmates has been continually decreasing in the poor asylums of the state. The proportionate reduction of poor asylum inmates in ten years has been about seven hundred. In other words, had we as many persons in the poor asylums in proportion to the population as ten years ago, we should be supporting seven hundred more than we are at a cost of $70,000. So the net results of the study of conditions and the enactment of laws to meet those conditions, together with proper supervision, have resulted in an annual reduction of about $500,000 just in this one phase of public charities. The reduction in pauperism and misery no one can measure. In addition to that the influence of the study of conditions and of reports thereof to the people has aroused public interest and awakened a greater desire for a proper administration of charities. In the change from old methods to new, Iowa has done good work. Iowa, however, never had a supervisory board of state charities. If it had, it might have done as well or better than it has. In my own state we feel that we have accomplished excellent results with a board of the last-mentioned kind. In certain respects, we think they are better than would have been accomplished under a single administrative board.

STATE CONTROL AND SUPERVISION.

BY F. H. WINES, LL.D

Control and supervision are distinct functions, and they require to be sharply differentiated from each other. Control implies executive power, the right to make appointments, to prescribe rules, and to pay out money. It also implies direct responsibility for the administration of the establishments committed to the care of an executive board. Supervision implies absence of executive power. The powers of a supervisory board are purely those of an inspector. Its function is criticism and suggestion, not administration. Thus in the army an inspector reports upon the condition of the troops, but is powerless to alter the existing situation. That can be accomplished only by orders emanating from the commander.

In states where the central board (commonly called a board of charities), is a supervisory board, and the administration of the state institutions is confided to individual boards of trustees or managers, the state which adopts this system secures the benefits both of responsibility in the discharge of executive functions and also of independent inspection, criticism, and suggestion. In states where the central board is a board of control, the administration of the state institutions may be equally good, or it may be worse or better; but there is no adequate supervision of their methods and results. In other words, the loss is certain, but the gain is problematical.

A supervisory board cannot act as a board of control, neither can a board of control act as a supervisory board.

The controversy over the question whether it is better to substitute a central board of control having charge of all state institutions or of some particular group of institutions for separate boards of trust having charge each of one institution relates, therefore, in fact to a detail of executive management. It should not be confounded with the question whether supervision is necessary or desirable. That, I think, is generally conceded. But the need of supervision is apt to be overlooked where a central supervisory board is converted into a central executive board of control, or where such conversion is seriously proposed.

The arguments for and against the substitution of a central board of control for separate local boards of management may be summarized as follows: —

It has been urged in favor of such substitution:

(1) That it would be an economy, since it would enable the state to purchase supplies for all of the state institutions in gross instead of in detail, and therefore at lower average prices. But it is entirely possible to organize a method of securing common bids for supplies for any number of institutions, and of making contracts for delivering the same in quantities and at times and places specified, without resort to so radical a departure from the established usage (in the majority of states) in the matter of the organization of the state charities.

(2) That it would result in increased efficiency of administration. The reason commonly assigned for this belief is that the members of a central board of control will give all their time to their official duties, and will receive pecuniary compensation for the service rendered by them, which will render them more responsible than are the unpaid members of local boards.

(3) That it would give unity of system in the management of the institutions.

(4) That it would facilitate the adoption of the merit system in the appointment of employees. But a state which believes in the merit system can and will have it, whether the executive power is in the hands of a single board or of several independent boards; and a state which does not believe in it will not have it under any circumstances or conditions. There is no necessary or logical connection between the desire for an improved civil service and the effort to consolidate the management of a group of state institutions.

(5) That local boards of trust, composed of residents of the town or county in which an institution is maintained by the state, too often exploit it for the local benefit of the community. But a citizen of such town or county, if on a central board, would enjoy additional facilities for fostering the interests of his locality; and it is not necessary to appoint as trustee of a state institution any resident of the immediate vicinity.

(6) That it is in the line of the changes taking place in the business methods of private corporations conducted for profit, in which consolidation, expansion, and increased power on the part of the

general management are brought about by the desire to cheapen production and insure larger returns on invested capital.

On the other hand, it has been said: —

(1) That the power which it is proposed to vest in a central board is political power, and that it is unwise and unsafe to concentrate such great and manifold powers in any single body of men. They would appoint the vast majority of persons borne on the pay-rolls of the state, would control the expenditure of more than half the general revenues of the state; and the patronage thus placed at their disposal would enable them to exercise an undue, if not a corrupting, influence over the state legislature and the state executive. Witness, for instance, the influence exerted in some of the Southern states by the lessees of the state penitentiaries.

(2) That membership in this central board of control would tend to become the great political prize at the disposal of the governor. It would be sought by men who would demand it as their reward for political service; and their right to it would be recognized, thus placing the control of the institutions in the hands of men not specially fitted for it by experience, qualification, or inclination, but who are practical politicians, and who would be tempted to use their power for the accomplishment of political ends.

(3) That the peril to the republic and to popular freedom lies in the direction of centralization. The methods pursued by corporations conducted for pecuniary gain are not necessarily a model for imitation by a state government. The unity of system and method which centralization implies would be quite as likely to be detrimental to the institutions, especially to their inmates, as advantageous.

(4) That a paid board, paid for administering, must administer, in order to earn its money and to save its own self-respect. Its natural tendency, therefore, is to assume and exercise functions which can better be fulfilled by the superintendent of each institution as its executive head. This is not unlikely to result in the selection of inferior men as superintendents, or in so hampering freedom of action on their part as to diminish their efficiency and usefulness.

(5) That the objects and methods of the different state institutions are so dissimilar in detail, in spite of their general resemblance, that no central board can feel an equal interest in all of them or administer all of them equally well. On the whole, it is better that

each should have its own trustees, devoted to its individual welfare, who believe it to be the most important and meritorious enterprise fostered by the state, and who will plan and fight for it with that dominating conviction and impulse.

(6) That generally, if not universally, the establishment of a central board of control cannot be effected without the abolition of the central supervisory board, as well as of the local boards of trust; and the injury thus done to the system as a whole is greater than any advantage which might accrue to the state in some other direction.

The proposal to establish a central board of control usually originates, I think, in the brain of some scheming politician, who wishes to strengthen a political machine by the addition to it of the state charitable institutions, which can be effectively used by an adroit and unscrupulous political manager as an aid to the control of caucuses, primaries, and conventions, and in the carrying of elections. They can of course be far more effectively used for this purpose if they have a single head, himself a member of the machine and in sympathy with its general aims. The motive which prompts the suggestion is concealed, and the ostensible motive put forth is the intention to secure better business organization, improved business methods, which appeals to business men not politicians, and who claim still less to be experts in benevolent work. Into the hands of these schemers those reformers play, who are impatient because reforms grow slowly, with the gradual education of public opinion, upon which they at last depend for moral support, and who imagine that they can be effected by the concentration of authority in a board which can issue and enforce the necessary orders. But does not this authority, this power, already exist? Why is it not used? Why suppose that one set of men will accomplish what several sets of men working in harmony cannot accomplish?

A central supervisory board is apt to be far more active and efficient than a board of control in the matter of arousing public interest in the benevolent work, both of the state and of private individuals or associations, and of educating public opinion on social questions as related to public and private charity. It is natural, is it not, that an executive board which believes itself to be doing all that can or ought to be done, with the means and facilities at its disposal, should be indifferent to public opinion or sensitive to criticism of its methods by the community? But a supervisory board, whose function

is criticism, welcomes and stimulates the closest inspection of public and private charities by the public at large, feeling that in such inspection it receives moral support of inestimable value to the state.

Personally, I dread the creation of centralized boards of control. They are less objectionable if they have charge only of single groups of institutions, as, for instance, all the hospitals and asylums for the insane or all the prisons. They are also less objectionable in small states than in the larger ones. They would be very much less objectionable if they did not mean the abolition of the supervisory boards but two central boards cannot ordinarily be maintained in one state. If they could, there would almost inevitably exist rivalry and conflict between them.

V.

The Feeble-minded and Epileptic.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC.

BY DR. A. W. WILMARTH,

SUPERINTENDENT WISCONSIN HOME FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

In choosing the subject for this report, we find it especially difficult to bring up matter which may be new to this Conference; for the history of the work has been fully and ably described in past sessions. While steady progress has been made during the past year, nothing especially new, to my knowledge, has been developed. On consulting the other members of the committee, however, I find that there is one subject which is quite generally felt to be of extreme importance; and, although this has been brought before the Conference more than once, very little has been done to rectify the evil. This subject is the adoption of more radical measures for the prevention of the increase in the number of defectives. This increase appears to more than keep pace with the provision which the public is able and willing to make for their care. I have therefore ventured to bring this subject again to your hearing, asking your counsel as to the best method to pursue to obtain the curtailment of the evil, and your aid in enlightening the public in regard to the necessity of such a course.

The public, while liberal in all its charities, demands that the funds so appropriated should be wisely and economically expended, and that the cost should be kept as low as possible, consistent with the best methods of carrying on the work. Out of the many millions of dollars which are contributed and expended for the care of the defective classes, no inconsiderable proportion is expended for

the care of those suffering from some defect in the nervous system. This class includes both the epileptic and imbecile, for they are almost inseparably connected. Considerably over one-half of the feeble-minded have, at some time of their life, suffered from convulsive disorders as a complication of their condition; while, on the other hand, only a small percentage of confirmed epileptics escape without mental deterioration. So closely related are the various centres of the brain, both in function and structure, that injury to the intellectual centres is extremely liable to implicate the motor centres and *vice versa*.

It is doubtful if much adverse criticism can be justly bestowed on the expenditure of funds in conducting modern institutions. Many years of experience have taught us economy of administration; and, while the efficiency of service is constantly increased, the cost of maintenance is gradually diminished. It will be found, after making due allowance for the number cared for and the difference in cost of supplies at various points, that the average per capita cost is remarkably uniform. There is, however, a process of waste so far-reaching and so enormous in its aggregate that it seriously demands correction. This lies in the increase in the number of defectives by birth,— an increase which grows in geometric ratio. With few exceptions, we may say that all writers who have studied the subject closely believe that parental characteristics as surely tend to descend to offspring in the human race as they do in every other living organized being. We are entailed with certain mental characteristics, as we are with certain physical features, which, however we may modify, we can never entirely eradicate. This tendency to transmission of physical and mental characteristics, which may or may not be modified, or apparently overcome by alliance with stronger organisms, constitutes what we term heredity; and we frequently see where this may be apparently corrected in one generation, only to be revived with intensified vigor in the succeeding one. Assuming this for granted, is it not evident that, while we are giving the care to our unfortunate charges which is only their just due, the burden of their support is liable to be an ever-increasing one, unless their generation ends with themselves?

Is it the tendency in degenerate families to rear a larger number of children than those of average intelligence? It would appear to be so. While nature tends to cease increase in cases where infir-

mity is marked, this is by no means true where only the higher faculties are affected. Large families are found among all grades of society; but investigation seems to indicate that, the higher the mental training of the parents, the less numerous the family, as a rule. Dr. Kiernan, who has made a considerable study of this matter, quotes Valenta, who had under observation two epileptics, mother and daughter. The mother had thirty-eight children: the daughter at forty years of age had been mother of thirty-two. These, of course, are isolated instances. Kiernan states that the average number of children in ninety degenerate families, which he had observed, was eleven; while multiple births occurred more than ten times as frequently as in the population taken as a whole. I need not quote again the enormous increase in a few family lines, which have been described before this Conference in the past. The largest family coming to my own personal knowledge was eighteen. I asked the sheriff, who had brought one of the children to my care, how many of the family were feeble-minded. He said he did not know, but they were all "queer." Some of them were in the Industrial School, being incorrigible; and they all seemed selfish, and had very little interest in one another. A second family of sixteen children has nearly the same history; while in a third family, where there were fourteen children, not more than four were in any way bright.

Coming from the ports of Europe, among the thrifty and hardy emigrants who blent their lives with the resident population and did so much toward the rapid development of our country, were found so many individuals who proved after their landing a social burden that at last public attention was strongly drawn to this subject. John W. Keller, Commissioner of Charities of New York City, states, in an official report, that, out of 2,936 inmates of the almshouse on Blackwell's Island, only 564 were born in this country. Stringent laws have been framed to prevent this imported addition to the public expense and injury to public morals. Some of these people may have been sent here by intent to avoid the cost and trouble of their support. Many, no doubt, were brought here by relatives, who cling more closely to their afflicted ones on account of their very weakness. Still more were probably influenced by the spirit of unrest which generally accompanies non-success; and they changed location, as the slightly mentally incompetent do in this country, moving from place to place, living as best they can, and mov-

ing when their surroundings are unfavorable for yielding a livelihood, known by few and cared for by even fewer. Laws have been passed excluding Chinese laborers, and against the importation of laborers by contractors, to divide the wages of our prosperous workmen. Serious as these evils may be, too few realize how much larger numbers are brought to us by natural increase, mainly because the enormous aggregate is never brought to their notice. In no place is it seen as in the institution for defectives, when the family histories are gradually unfolded, and by the officers of organized charities. The examples which have been quoted before this Conference, of the enormous increase in certain families have only been exaggerated instances of a very common incident. It should be remembered, in the interests of social economy, that, while imported labor may take from the workman, who is often also a tax-payer, a portion of his wages, the support of this class constitutes a heavy drain on his savings.

Marriages of imbeciles with each other are not uncommon. I have recently heard how a party of young men perpetrated a capital joke, as they thought, in inducing two imbeciles to marry. Marriage is easy. Desertions are easy. The wheels of the divorce mills turn smoothly and rapidly. If we may believe our papers, a snow-blockade the past winter afforded sufficient time for an acquaintance to be formed, courtship to be conducted, and a marriage ceremony perpetrated. The papers of last month gave an account of the meeting of a well-to-do young farmer and an eighteen-year-old girl on Sunday in response to an advertisement, their marriage on Monday, their separation on Tuesday, and an application for divorce on Wednesday. The very frequency of such publications tends to make the reading public indifferent to their social importance. It seems hardly rational that people of a sound mind should enter into the most solemn contract in life on such slight notice. It seems almost incredible that legal officers can be found who would perform such a ceremony. To illustrate how these marriages may come about, I beg to submit a letter addressed to a member of a family of imbeciles and epileptics, who is at present under my charge: "April 22, 1902. Miss Ella S.: Kind Friend,—I take pleasure to drop you a few lines at your aunt request me. She restmended you to me and wanted me to rite to you and now do you want a home and would you be willing to git married if so rite

and let me know by return male. Good by for this time from Henry P." I took the liberty of refusing the proposal. Had the young woman been free to act, this union would probably have occurred.

These facts point to the necessity for radical action. There are only two remedies for the abatement of this evil in the class of which we speak to-day. The seclusion of feeble-minded and epileptic adults, especially females between the ages of fifteen and forty-five who are liable to become willing subjects to man's rascality, and the passing of such laws as shall prevent the marriage of defectives, or the living together as man and wife of any one with a defective person. It is not uncommon for a person of kindly instincts and sympathetic nature, as he passes through an institution for the care of the mentally defective, to say that it would be a kindness to them if they were deprived of life. Not that they would be the willing executioners,— they would shrink with horror from such a suggestion,— but because they see that the comforts with which these unfortunates are surrounded in no ways compensate for the suffering which they may undergo, or for the bright things of life of which their infirmity robs them. It is quite general in parents, who cling so closely to the children who are so afflicted, to find, mingled with their grief, a justifiable satisfaction when death claims one of them. It would be a graver responsibility than most people care to assume to deprive any of these living beings of life. Is it not a still more serious matter to bestow life on such an individual,— to inflict on them suffering which comes from epilepsy, the constant danger to life and limb, which they undergo? to give them a life of social inferiority, deprived of true and congenial companionship, that makes them almost strangers among their own kin? Has the child no right to good parentage? If he has, we should respect such right.

Having detailed the reasons for the steps I here advocate, let us review briefly the present conditions which obtain in this matter:—

I have written, or spoken, to eighteen of the superintendents of the most prominent institutions in the country, to ascertain how far the authorities may control the removal of the inmates from their care. I find in two institutions that all patients are regularly committed on the certificate of two physicians, as are patients to the hospital for the insane, subject to the control of the authorities until it is deemed fitting that they should be discharged. In three institutions a por-

tion only of those sent are entirely subject to the control of the management. In one of these three institutions, adults over twenty years are thus admitted; in the second, females between the ages of sixteen and forty-five years; in the other, patients who are committed as custodial. In two institutions the matter has never been pushed to a final decision. In one the matter is left entirely to the superintendent, who regards the wishes of the parents as supreme, even in cases where children have proved very troublesome in their neighborhood, and the probate judges have protested against their discharge. In ten the superintendents know of no legal right that they have to detain cases, although they throw all the moral influence they possess against such release in improper instances.

The possible reason why rules regarding removals are not more stringent may be from the fact that many of the old institutions were opened as schools, when their object was to instruct children as thoroughly as possible, with a view to dismissal to their homes at a fixed period. That hope — that mental weakness, in many cases at least, was a temporary condition, which could be largely or wholly removed by the proper system of training — has been disappointed. Institutions have changed their character, largely, to furnish a permanent residence with congenial surroundings for these unfortunates; but the rules regarding the admissions and discharges have remained without any radical change. If the question of discharge were left to probate or county judges, they change quite frequently, or they forget the exact circumstances under which children were sent to institutions, or they yield to importunities of friends or influential neighbors. In any case they can hardly form as accurate a judgment of inmates as those who are brought in daily contact with them. I have myself seen more than one instance of that. Should we honor the claims of parents who practically abandon their children during their more hopeless days, and only desire their return when they are sufficiently instructed to become profitable to them? Should we do this when their tendencies are such as would lead to their ruin, and the parents lack either the character or ability to restrain them? Where the permanent good of the child is not affected and the home is suitable, the custody not only might, but should, be transferred. But I have seen too many cases where children have been practically abandoned, where no inquiry has been made regarding them for long periods. When, however, the children were sufficiently developed as

to promise to become a source of revenue, the affection for them was rekindled with a suddenness and violence that was almost startling; and the parents have insisted that their children no longer be subjected to the "deprivation and confinement" of the institution. This sudden interest does not always endure for any long period after they are informed that the state will still retain the guardianship of the child.

Of what do we deprive the confirmed imbecile that he needs to make his life complete and happy, who has been separated from his family, by making him a permanent resident in an institution? I recently asked the aunt of three of our charges, from a family that contained a large number of irresponsibles, what she could give the children that we could not furnish. She said she could think of nothing but more liberty, which was the last thing that these girls could safely have. We often hear the phrase of "lifelong confinement" used. But why should the institution be made a place of confinement? It constitutes a community, or colony, as large as a reasonably complete village, where they can have all needed entertainment suited to their mental capacity, and life's greatest boon, usefulness, which constitutes pure happiness, through occupation that their limited ability is capable of pursuing. In the Wisconsin institution — and I think the same is true of all others of a similar character — our brighter boys have free range of the institution grounds, with the stipulation that they shall keep absolutely away from the girls' buildings and out of all mischief,— a privilege which they rarely abuse. Our girls are allowed less liberty, but can go almost anywhere under no more supervision than they absolutely require. Is this not safer and better than the sidewalks and street corners? What further liberty could they have in safety? They are denied the privilege of marrying; but is this not right? Where children are to be returned to parents who are able and willing to care for them, no shadow of opposition is placed in their way.

Supplementing this control, a law should be passed in all states curtailing the right of known defectives to marry or any one to join them in marriage. Attempts have been made in several states for passing such a law. In many others, however, nothing has been accomplished. This has been due partly to the indifference of those on whom this responsibility should fall, partly to the indifference of legislators who do not fully realize the harm, as well as the bless-

ings, which the marriage tie brings, and partly to the effort to pass laws so stringent in their provision as to be repulsive to the public, and which would probably be impracticable of enforcement if passed.

I know of no law better than that in the State of Connecticut, which is so simple in its provision, and yet imposes penalties so severe on those who violate its provisions, that it appears to me ideal. It confines itself simply to the provisions of marriage between known defectives, and, further, prevents people of normal mind from contracting marriage or living as husband and wife with any such person. This prevents marriage in other states and return for the purpose of evading the statute. Laws which contain a much wider provision than that, and especially laws which impose physical examination or other hardship on those who have no moral or mental fault, would be extremely difficult of enforcement; and no law at all is better than a dead law. I have been somewhat interested in noting the objections which have been raised against this effort toward curtailing this source of increase among the defective classes. One is that the law could never be fully enforced. I do not think that any law was ever passed with the expectation that it would entirely control or prevent the evil at which it was aimed. The most that could be expected or even hoped for would be that it would mitigate the evil to some extent, and serve even the better purpose of drawing public attention to the fault at which it was aimed, and the desirability of its extinction. A medical journal of high standing recently stated that the laws of degeneracy were always active, and, if this law was effective in this generation, in the next we would still find defectives. This is certainly true, but they would be found in greatly diminished numbers.

When the state has taken the imbecile, and by training has brought out the best there is in him, when it has corrected his faults, so far as education can do it, when it has possibly taught him to read and write, to be more engaging in his manners and more attractive in appearance and bearing, and then has discharged him with his inherent defects in no ways removed, to marry and perpetuate his kind, has it really done a commendable deed? Using the words of a former president of this Conference, it should rather say to each one: "My child, your life has been one succession of failures. You cannot feed and clothe yourself honestly: you cannot con-

trol your appetites and passions. Left to yourself, you are not only useless, but mischievous. Henceforth I shall care for you." Instead it should give him such community to live in as would be entirely suited to his needs and desires. The large number of residents should be divided into families, where the imbecile of high mental grade should not be forced to mingle with those of much lower mental powers except as care-takers. In such capacity of care-takers they readily grasp the dignity of their position, and have no tendency to copy the characteristics of those depending on them. The vicious should be separated from the harmless. Each child should be educated, as every American child should be, to the extent of his capacity. His whole education should be preparatory to a career of usefulness in his immediate community. Each child should be given the utmost liberty that his condition would allow; and this care should be continued, at least until such time as the danger of perpetuating his kind should cease. Given such conditions, I am confident that every one who can speak from experience on the subject will support me in the statement that a very large majority of our children would find themselves more at home under such circumstances than they would under other surroundings, and that those who would not thus be satisfied are children whose vicious tendencies crave the entire removal of restraint, that such tendencies may be exercised. The measures I have described do not apply to a large proportion of our inmates. The helpless idiot appeals only to our sympathy, and his best friend is rather the nurse than the teacher. The child from the good home may certainly be returned there, though we sometimes find that he is not always satisfied, and longs for the company of those with whom he is congenial. Those who are engaged in the noble charity of finding homes for the homeless find, occasionally, one who is not acceptable. The superintendents of institutions for the improvement and reform of youth of both sexes find a few whose minds are sterile ground, so far as planting seeds of morality and rectitude are concerned, and are found to be more sinned against than sinning; for their temperament is their birthright. Girls are found in homes who never acquire the most precious qualities of true womanhood, and find on the street the most congenial associations. They are found in very small proportion anywhere; but their aggregate number is enormous, their influence on our social life is most unfortunate, and their

power of increasing and transmitting evil is the more to be feared because so little appreciated.

I beg the influence of those assembled toward the attainment of such condition of affairs that no living soul shall be allowed to enter this life handicapped with the strong probability of a career of suffering, of crime, of poverty, or persistent mental degradation, where it can be foreseen and prevented, confident that the public opinion on this point would certainly allow the adoption of measures to reduce this evil to a minimum.

THE IMBECILE AND EPILEPTIC *versus* THE TAX-PAYER AND THE COMMUNITY.

BY MARTIN W. BARR, M.D.,

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Of all dependent classes there are none that drain so entirely the social and financial life of the body politic as the imbecile, unless it be its close associate, the epileptic.

Charitable associations, state and municipal authorities, awakening to the need of self-preservation in disposing of such increasing numbers, are striving to provide for both dependent and delinquent classes, but too often with a sad mixing up of the two, whether from lack of co-ordinated effort or of ignorance. Only the other day I noticed an order for the removal of a number of cripples and feeble-minded from a house of correction as a place wholly unsuitable.

Now there is much the same misapprehension in the distribution of mental defectives,— those whom the public know only under the one name of idiots. It would be well for all, could it once be clearly understood that the effort to include helpless idiots, trainable imbeciles of all grades, incorrigibles, and epileptics all under one jurisdiction but defeats its own end in not getting the best returns for amounts expended.

This, I believe, is due in large measure to a misconception in the minds of legislators and their constituents — the large body of tax-payers back of them — as to the grades of imbecility and the different modes of caring for each, the hopelessness of idiocy, the incurability of epilepsy, and its persistent tendency to degeneration and to irresponsibility.

The irresponsible unguarded is a fruitful author of ill, doubly so when unrecognized or unsuspected, as is too often the case with the moral imbecile,— he who is born without the moral sense; for the amoral, or unmoral, can work more detriment than the immoral. The latter may be reformed, the former never.

Doubtless but few voters and tax-payers are cognizant of the fact that, of the one hundred thousand mental defectives which our very inadequate census returns give, only about one-tenth are provided for in institutions. The rest are scattered through communities swelling the pauper and criminal ranks, filling jails and penitentiaries, largely figuring in police courts and criminal trials, until juvenile courts have become a necessity. Witness Chicago with its 17,000 children arrested during the past year.

They are found misfits in houses of refuge or correction, where the discipline is not adapted to their pecular condition, or, unrecognized, they burden the asylums designed for other dependent classes.

If possessed of means to raise them above these conditions, we find them too often paralyzing the energies of the home or demoralizing the schools. Everywhere it is the same,— "The White Man's Burden" that seems ever increasing and never lifted.

To the conscious, wilful criminal we may mete out a well-merited punishment; but this irresponsible, this innocent author of every ill,— what shall we do with him?

Only within a limited area and the short space of two years a murder, an attempted arson, and more than one seduction and rape are but a few of the many incidents I have been cognizant of. The so-called murderer, an imbecile lad of fifteen years, was, after all the costs of criminal trial, saved from what would have been judicial murder only by my exposition to the jury of his absolute irresponsibility, and is now serving what is to be hoped will prove a life term in the penitentiary, as there is no place now to be found suited to such a case without detriment to others.

The second was discovered just in time to save we know not what

loss of life and property to a large institution, and the others will simply double and triple their own infirmity.

Statistics go to show that these are not the exceptions, but the rule. Wherever defect or disease rests unguarded, it becomes a festering sore, sure to eat as a canker or in some sudden unexpected outbreak to cause ruin to many. Guiteau and Czolgosz, terrible in their work, were only warning signals thrown up from the great volcano of irresponsibility, which, never extinct, is sure to have its periodical outburst, bringing destruction to life and property.

Viewing this, and knowing the certain transmission of such taint, how can one fail to appreciate the advantage of prevention over penalty, or to recognize as the most beneficent instrument of law the surgeon's knife preventing increase. And why not? We guard against all epidemics, are quick to quarantine small-pox, and we exclude the Chinese; but we take no steps to eliminate this evil from the body social. There is no law providing for the gradual but sure recognition of the imbecile and his prompt and permanent sequestration; nor for epilepsy except, I believe, marriage laws in Connecticut.

We are very careful as to the breeding, inbreeding, or non-breeding of our flocks and herds and beasts of burden; but we allow epileptics and irresponsible imbeciles to taint pure stock or to reproduce their kind unmolested without intervention. After all, there is a good deal of sentimentality and false modesty in the repudiation of the idea of laws controlling increase. We simply seek for the helpless, ignorant, irresponsible, what the wealthy and the indolent do for themselves. The former is incapable of the responsibilities of parenthood, the latter unwilling: in one case social progress is retarded by increased population, in the other it might be aided.

The spirit of our Constitution protects every man in his inalienable right of the pursuit of happiness, it is true, but only when that pursuit does not conflict with the rights of his neighbor. Moreover, it must be remembered that we are dealing not with men, but with an arrested development which constitutes a perpetual childhood, as incapable of the responsibilities of parenthood as it is of intelligent suffrage.

Now this is a question which every tax-payer may rightly claim concerns him personally. He may be willing to contribute to the support of one set of imbeciles, but even the father of a family

would be justified in resenting acts which required him to do it twice.

Now let us review the methods of providing for these incapables; and in this the tax-payer, naturally desirous to see the best returns for amount expended, will agree that in this, as in every other measure, the only practical way to reach a desired end is to investigate the results of experience, and to advise with those who have made it a life study.

The work among mental defectives begun some sixty years since in America was directed entirely toward raising the helpless idiot up to a condition of self-help, what is now known as the brighter class of imbeciles and the so-called backward children being either unrecognized or non-existent. Since then the work has grown rapidly from that of the mere asylum to meet the demands of an ever-increasingly nervous world which, with its cram systems of education and its eagerness "to get there" some way, any way, has no time to deal with its slow offspring. So these must either be run down or placed where they can make haste slowly. This is the literal truth: they must *still* hasten, for even in retreats such as the training schools provide, by extending their methods, the *Zeitgeist* still pursues, and the weak-minded is "hustled" in much the same proportion as his normal brother. Hardly have these imbeciles a smattering of a trade, with neither ability nor will power to pursue what can only become a habit with them under strong compulsion and endless repetition, until the human machine becomes automatic,— before, I say, this can be accomplished,— the vanity of the family or the pressure upon associations, charitable or political, withdraws them to swell the army of imbeciles, that others may take the vacated places and repeat the programme. Thus the efforts of all concerned are largely nullified by failure to apprehend the situation; and the imbeciles, society, and the tax-payer all reap the consequences.

Now the question is how to readjust conditions so as to avoid a recurrence of failures. In this let us note, in passing, two factors which will aid the process of elimination: changed conditions in the home necessitate other provision, and the incapables once cared for there are drifting in great numbers into institutions; again, the establishment of classes for backward children is separating abnormal from normal children in the schools, and a second sifting sends many here adjudged hopelessly defective also to institutions.

Having massed numbers, the next step would be a redistribution such as experience has proven will provide the best advantages for the greatest number at minimum cost; and this, of course, will be found in separating trainables from untrainables.

As an asylum requires a different régime and can be run on a more economical basis, there is nothing gained by hampering with profound idiots or with untrainable epileptics the training school; for this with its custodial and non-custodial cases, its high, middle, and low grades of both sexes,— each and all requiring separate and distinct methods, — has its energies taxed to the utmost with the material in hand to build up defective minds and bodies, and to make their labor reduce the cost of maintenance. Once protection be assured by means of a system of prolonged apprenticeship, industries already proven could be extended and others introduced, bringing in time this reduction to a maximum. Many of these industries can be profitably carried forward by the incorrigible or moral imbecile; and the custodial buildings now largely filled with untrainable epileptics and idiots, if fitted with shops, might become veritable hives of industry.

The low-grade, or any, early reaching their limit in the schools, might be drafted off to the idiot or epileptic asylums, where they would make useful aids; and in this way, by separation and redistribution may the helpless become helpful, and the utilizing of waste products be made to serve the double purpose of eliminating from society in large degree the criminal element and converting it into an aid in caring for its weakest members, thus in two ways relieving the burden upon the tax-payer.

Later, as sequestration gradually becomes law, there will be demand for yet larger outlet; and the scheme will attain its full development only in a colony giving changed environment with greater freedom to trained artisans completing apprenticeship.

Such a colony, giving a stimulus to training as well as offering permanent outlet to the institutions of the country, might be established on a liberal scale by the national government, which would thus set its seal to the work of maintaining the integrity of the state and the purity of citizenship.

VI.

The Insane.

THE ESSENTIALS OF AN ADEQUATE SYSTEM OF CARE FOR THE INSANE.

BY FREDERICK PETERSON, M.D.,

PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

Twenty-three years ago I was a resident physician in a general hospital in a city of perhaps 200,000 inhabitants. The nearest asylum for the insane was two hundred miles away. As a consequence, acute cases of insanity had to be placed in police stations or in the general hospital, pending arrangements for their removal to the asylum. On inquiry you will find that in nearly all the cities and towns of this country at the present day the acutely insane receive their first therapeutic ministrations, such as they are, in a jail or station house. In some cities a general hospital is made use of to a certain extent. For instance, during my residence in the general hospital mentioned, an average of two or three mental cases per month was received, the majority of which were there cared for and treated for a few days or weeks and discharged recovered or improved, while a small number were transferred to the asylum. We had, however, no special provision for these cases; and they had to be taken into the wards or private rooms together with all other classes of patients. If we had had a separate pavilion, we might easily have received all the mental cases of the city without the intermediary of the jail; and immediate medical care and nursing, so important in early cases of insanity, could have been supplied for as long a time as was judicious previous to a possible transfer to an asylum.

We have emergency hospitals for broken bones or acute fevers; but, when the most important organ of the body, the brain, becomes affected with an acute disease, the emergency hospital is the jail.

This deplorable condition of affairs has led to a steadily increasing agitation of the subject of emergency hospitals for the insane. It is an axiom among physicians versed in psychiatry that early diagnosis and speedy treatment are of paramount importance in nearly all acute cases of insanity. Surely, nothing could be worse for a delirious mind than the sight of police officials and prison walls I advocate, therefore, as the fundamental basis of a system of care for the insane, the establishment in all large towns and cities of emergency pavilions or independent hospitals for the reception of the insane. These need not be isolated special hospitals. Two small wards in a general hospital, or a pavilion in connection therewith, will suffice for the early treatment and humane care of the insane in the larger towns. In cities of considerable size, say with a population of 100,000 or more, provision should be made for the insane in independent psychopathic hospitals. The hospital for the acutely insane should be located in the most populous portion of the city in order to afford convenient and speedy access from every quarter. The same rules that guide us in selecting a site for a general or emergency hospital should aid us here. Since the acutely insane are usually put to bed or restricted to single rooms or wards, situation in the heart of the city is of no greater disadvantage to this than to other hospitals.

The psychopathic hospital should have much the same administrative arrangements as any general hospital. There should be a medical superintendent with experience in the care of the insane, and a staff of internes, together with a corps of consulting physicians representing the various specialties of medical and surgical practice. All the nurses should be graduates of asylum training schools. An outdoor department or dispensary should form a part of the organization, in order that cases of incipient insanity may be seen at the earliest possible moment. Such a plant as this would afford abundant opportunity for the medical schools to conduct clinics and provide medical men with a knowledge of psychiatry before they go out into practice. It is probably not familiar to you that little or no instruction in insanity is given in the majority of the medical schools in this country. A general diffusion of knowledge of the methods of diagnosis and treatment of the insane would be achieved through the instrumentality of the psychopathic hospital, and early attention insured more frequently than is now the case to these unfortunates.

The laws relating to the insane should be so changed that patients could be admitted as emergency cases for a period of, perhaps, ten days. Due regard must be paid to the preservation of personal rights; but legislators have seemed too often to regard the insane as malefactors or delinquents, and too seldom as sufferers from serious illness requiring immediate nursing and medical attention.

From the standpoint of humanity and from that of economy, we should establish these reception pavilions or psychopathic hospitals wherever there is sufficient population to warrant it. Let it be remembered that the acute cases are those which will always require our greatest care and attention and the largest per capita cost for construction and maintenance. This is true economy, for it has been estimated that each patient not cured becomes an ultimate cost to the state of $6,000.

Thus far we have considered the reception hospital as the foundation of any adequate system of care of the insane. We must now proceed with the development of such an ideal system from the foundation described. It is unfortunately true that insanity is prone to run a chronic course. Disorders of the delicate mechanism of the brain, unlike diseases affecting other tissues of the body, are usually tedious in their progress and all too frequently permanent in their effects. In the State of New York, for instance, the excess in the number of patients received in asylums above the number discharged is between six and seven hundred every year. There is, then, an accumulation of chronic and incurable patients with an average duration of asylum life of twelve or thirteen years. The proportion of acute and curable patients who are to be treated in the psychopathic hospitals to the vast aggregations of chronic and incurable patients is exceedingly small. The proposed ideal system of care of the insane, then, must provide for enormous numbers of the latter class; and it is to these we must now direct our attention. The chronic and incurable class is made up of a great variety of types, of sick, aged, and infirm, excited, quiet, dangerous, harmless, paralyzed. The word "chronic" does not mean incurable, but merely long-continued; and many of this type recover in time. A very large proportion, perhaps 70 to 80 per cent., of these chronic and incurable insane, are physically strong and well, and are able to work. Their work has an economic value; and occupation is, moreover, one of the best remedial agents at our disposition in the treatment of the insane.

The kinds of labor best adapted to their needs are of a simple sort, preferably out-of-door work. Hence agriculture, gardening, road-making, quarrying, and brickmaking have been found to be the most useful employments for men; housework, sewing, laundry work, kitchen work, light gardening, weaving, rug and basket making, for women. Now, in order to properly classify and segregate these numerous types of the chronic insane, a considerable number of different kinds of buildings is required; and, in order to provide the occupations above described, a large and fertile tract of land is essential. The location selected must be near a centre of population and on some railway or waterway; for ease of access is a prerequisite to economy in the transportation of supplies, to speedy transfer of patients to and from the cities, to visitation of relatives and friends, and, in short, to the success of the system. These premises lead to but one conclusion; *viz.*, that the institution in the country for the mixed classes of insane should be organized on the colony or village plan. It is a system of segregation, and is directly opposed to the old scheme of immense aggregations of insane persons under one roof. This old scheme still so generally in vogue had its origin at the period in the history of the insane when they were first separated from the criminal classes in the prisons, and for economic reasons were transferred to abandoned convents and monasteries. By a process of evolution the abandoned monasteries gave rise to the more or less ornate corridor style of asylum architecture with which we are so familiar, for every state and country has numerous exemplars. To this order of institution various names have been given, such as the monastery style, corridor style, cathedral style, and the barrack system. The block or pavilion system is a mere variation of the scheme, with surface or underground corridor connections.

Before outlining the details of the colony or village idea, your attention must be called to one cardinal fact in relation to every asylum, whatever be its situation, in the city or in the country; and that is that all types of insanity will inevitably gravitate to it from every direction within the radius of easy access. The psychopathic hospital in the city, designed though it be for acute cases only, will attract to it the chronic and incurable insane of the community as well; these will be transferred to the colony immediately after admission. But the colony in the country will also afford to the surrounding country districts a ready means of disposition of acute

cases of insanity. This rule has so often been tested by experience that there is little need to refer to it here. But I might cite as an instance of this law its effect in the State of New York, where at one time aslyums were constructed ostensibly for acute cases at Utica, Poughkeepsie, and Buffalo, and ostensibly for the chronic insane at Willard and Binghamton. A few years after this system came into vogue, I found that the asylums for the chronic insane were receiving all the acute cases of the neighboring counties, while, on the other hand, in the institutions for the acute insane at least three-quarters of the patients were chronic and incurable.

The result of this practical fact determines one important point in the establishment of the colony, and that is that the first building to be erected on the grounds for patients must be a small hospital for the acutely insane. The necessity for this is apparent from what has just been said, and another argument in its favor is that there will be received at times in the city psychopathic hospital certain acute cases whose improvement will be hastened by transfer to the pavilion for acute cases in the country institution.

After the construction of an administration building and hospital for acute cases, the colony is further developed by the addition of an infirmary for the sick, idle, decrepit, and disturbed chronic patients. These buildings form the nucleus of the colony. After these follow the cottages on the village green for the women patients, and the cottages for men clustered about the various centres of industry,— the farm, garden, brickyard, quarry, and shop. A village or sort of farming hamlet is the result. Probably a population of two thousand should not be exceeded. In organizing a scheme of this nature, the selection of suitable land, conveniently situated for transportation, good water supply, and proper sewage disposal, is presup posed. The whole plan and arrangement of buildings should be laid out beforehand by a landscape architect, not only because all public construction should aid in the general education of the people to standards of beauty, but especially to insure artistic harmony in the whole, and to arrange with economy the roads, walks, water mains, sewer system, and lines of lighting and heating from the central plants. The details of the colony system I have elaborated in other papers on this subject, and I need not dwell upon them here. But let us go over briefly the arguments in favor of the village scheme as compared with the old block or monastery plan.

The whole scheme having been first laid out, any small portion, such as a single cottage, may be constructed first, and the colony increased to any capacity by yearly additions without detriment to the original arrangement. The materials of construction may be varied, and the per capita cost of the buildings adjusted to the needs of the various types of insanity mentioned above, instead of equal accommodation and an equal per capita cost, as in the ordinary corridor system.

The original cost of the simple villa structure is less than that of the great blocks of buildings with their waste of space in corridors, their expensive underground tunnels, and their elaborate plumbing, heating, and ventilating devices.

The annual cost for repairs is less in the village system.

The cost of maintenance is no greater in the colony system; and the director of Alt-Scherbitz, the most complete colony for the insane in the world, points out that the per capita cost of maintenance there is less than the average of German asylums.

Sanitary conditions are more satisfactory in scattered groups of buildings than in great structures where masses of human beings are assembled together.

The matter of food distribution from a central kitchen is readily accomplished by horse and wagon, food-carts, or out-of-door tram, and at a cost which is less than that of the underground tunnel system with lifts.

The above are arguments of a practical nature, and such as appeal to the tax-payer as reasonable and satisfactory.

But there is a far more convincing argument in favor of the colony system, and one which I feel will appeal with equal force to the tax-payer when he is made aware of its nature and importance. This argument concerns the welfare of the patients. This object — the welfare of the patients — should guide us, in fact, much more than questions of economy. The citizen does not desire to see extravagance in structure or maintenance, but he does not ask for a stinting of money if wise expenditure will lead to better treatment and more humane care of the unfortunates for whose support he is taxed.

The home idea is the very foundation of the colony scheme of care. In the large asylums thorough classification and segregation are admittedly impossible. All who have had to do with the insane in the present asylum system have only too often observed the effects

upon patients with acute insanity of admission into the startling environment of a large asylum ward with thirty to fifty noisy, violent, filthy and destructive patients barred in one corridor, like himself. The individual is lost sight of in this congregate system where a thousand patients live more or less closely together, and may even eat together in one huge dining-room. Think of the abrupt change in a patient's life when transferred from his home to surroundings so extraordinary, so abnormal! A sane person is shocked and terrified on beholding such a ward for the first time. What must be the effect upon an individual suffering from an acute mental disease, with an imagination already sensitive and disordered, keenly alive to every sight and sound in his environment?

The colony system permits of the most careful and complete classification in widely separate buildings of the acute cares, the sick and infirm, the suicidal, the noisy and destructive, and of the quiet, chronic workers instead of their indiscriminate commingling in the block or corridor scheme.

In this colony system there arises a greater intimacy between the attendants and their charges, a deeper personal interest in the welfare of the patients, and a generous rivalry between the various cottages that can only be stimulating to both attendants and patients, whereas in the block plan the attendants are prone to lose sight of the patients, to treat them not as individuals, but *en masse*, because their attention is so much divided.

If you will read carefully the books on insanity and the reports of the medical superintendents of asylums, you will find much which pertains to the so-called moral treatment of insanity. All these authorities agree that more is accomplished by means of moral treatment, or appeal to the mind, than by any form of medication. Since, then, it is chiefly through the mind that we must operate in order to restore balance to the faculties, it is surely of the highest importance to place the patient in surroundings which shall be soothing and pleasant to his disordered intelligence, where he shall be individualized, and where the associations shall be homelike, orderly, friendly, and familiar. In fact, the environment should be made as nearly normal as possible. An essentially abnormal environment cannot but be detrimental to an abnormal mind.

Therefore, we must conclude from the premises above stated that an adequate system of care of the insane must consist in the twofold

organization of *psychopathic hospitals for the acutely insane in the cities, and colonies for the mixed classes of insane in the adjacent country.*

"Psychopathic hospital and colony" should be the motto of twentieth century workers in this field.

The system is not experimental, not new, not untried. Every university town in Germany has its psychopathic hospital. There are successful colonies for the insane in Germany and France; and Lancashire and Massachusetts are severally organizing a colony institution at this writing. Albany, N.Y., has established a reception hospital for the insane already. Ann Arbor, Mich., is constructing a psychopathic hospital. The Craig Colony for Epileptics at Sonyea, N.Y., is a model colony scheme which might well be followed, as it is equally adapted to the needs of the insane. I might mention in passing that the colony system is the one adequate scheme for other classes of dependants, the feeble-minded, the inebriate, and the youthful delinquents of reformatories.

I must take this occasion also to advert to the scientific features of an adequate system of care of the insane. Especial stress must be laid upon the need of provision for scientific work and study in connection with both the psychopathic hospital and the colony. This twentieth century finds us on the verge of remarkable development of clinical and laboratory methods of research in the domain of morbid psychology; and it is the duty of the state to encourage and foster a work whose far-reaching consequences we cannot yet foresee, but whose results will benefit the insane immeasurably by improving our methods of care, treatment, and cure.

I must briefly allude to a system of boarding out of the chronic and quiet classes of insane which has found vogue in some countries, notably Belgium and Scotland. I doubt if it would be successful in this country, because in the State of New York, at least, the per capita cost of maintenance has been reduced to such a figure (a little over $3 per week) that there would be no economy in the plan. Probably no families could be found who would take boarders, even if their labor were of value, at less than the figure mentioned.

The relative advantages and disadvantages of a system of state as opposed to county care have been threshed over so often that I shall only refer to the two methods in a cursory way. In New York the county care system is now a matter of history, but no one could read over the details of that record of political and moral turpitude

without thanksgiving that the state at last assumed the entire guardianship of her unfortunate children. I have no personal knowledge of the workings of the Wisconsin system, which is, I believe, the antithesis of the method prevailing in New York; but competent critics decry it, and an unchallenged statement in a recent number of *Charities*, a periodical with which you are familiar, to the effect that the whipping of patients as a disciplinary measure had been discussed at a meeting of the superintendents of the county institutions, is a sufficient commentary upon the standards accepted in Wisconsin.

STATE SUPERVISION OF THE INSANE.

BY C. B. BURR, M.D.,

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The late John J. Bagley, of Detroit, one of Michigan's ablest governors, a man of great breadth of view and business sagacity, and widely esteemed as a practical philanthropist, once said, in advocating the establishment of an additional institution for the insane: "There is, approximately, in Michigan, one insane person to every one thousand of inhabitants. It is the duty of the nine hundred and ninety-nine to turn in and take care of the one." Thus was tersely expressed an obligation, admitted by civilized communities everywhere, to care for their insane members. The foundation of this policy lies in humane and altruistic sentiments, sympathy for suffering, and desire to alleviate it. Reasons other than sentimental are in existence, however, that make it expedient for the state to assume this duty and apply curative treatment in insane conditions efficiently and early.

First. The insane individual is not only non-productive, but a source of expense. Restored to health, he may return to his former position among the producing classes in society.

Second. Characteristics developed in many cases through loss of self-control induced by disease are a menace to the safety of others as well as the patient himself.

There is a growing determination in every community that the insane shall be the recipients of tender care, that none shall be neglected, and that none shall be denied whatever of nursing and medical attention will contribute to ameliorate or improve his condition. Old-time prejudices founded upon false notions concerning its nature are gradually giving place to the concept of insanity as a disease amenable to curative agencies, as are other diseases of the physical system. The people are unwilling that there should be any parsimony in expenditure for the insane; and, though it is a regrettable fact that in few instances has building for their accommodation kept pace with increasing numbers, public sentiment, even in the less wealthy communities, has invariably been opposed to cheese-paring economy in this particular line of philanthropic work. On the other hand, the era of extravagant housing of the insane has passed; and communities look to those having responsibility for the expenditure of public moneys to provide structures sanitary, well-built, equipped with all modern appliances for treatment, but without unnecessary embellishment and the multiplication of those architectural features which are purely ornate.

There can be, in the nature of things, no system of supervision of the insane of general applicability. Standards of care in different communities vary with the degree of culture and refinement and with social conditions; and a system meeting the requirements of one state may be found hopelessly inadequate in another whose ideals are higher. The insane person being, by reason of his affliction, theoretically incapable of caring for himself and his property, it follows that ideal supervision should assure to him the protection of all his interests, personal and financial. Obviously, this is impossible in the present organization of society. So long as sane members of the community are unable to protect themselves from the lawless through the operation of law, so long, for example, as the most stringent supervision prescribed by state authority is inadequate to prevent loss to bank depositors through delinquency or malfeasance of officials, so long as public sentiment in communities does not require the observance of certain wise statutes, and many of these are openly disregarded, it would seem to be reaching out for the unattainable to look for a system of supervision of the insane, adequate to protect their personal and property rights, in the midst of so much general inadequacy in laws of men's devising. Confer-

ences may resolve, boards may be created, legislatures may enact and re-enact; but the best hope of efficient, helpful, thorough, practical supervision must lie in the organization of institutions themselves.

In this paper I shall deal chiefly with the insane in institutions under medical auspices. Certain states have adopted the boarding-out system for a portion of the insane. Time will demonstrate its advantages and shortcomings. Of its results I am unable to speak from personal knowledge, but it must be true of this as of any other system that the lack of humane feeling on the part of those having the immediate care of patients will operate disastrously in spite of the most searching scrutiny and the best-organized system of inspection. A grand total of misery may be made up of little tyrannies and neglects, requiring for detection and correction a degree of sagacity and mental alertness hardly less than that claimed by the sheriff of Nottingham.

Furthermore, I shall not concern myself wholly with supervision by those acting under state authority, whether designated as inspectors, as boards of control, boards of charities, or commissioners in insanity, but, assuming that the words "Adequate System of State Supervision" may have a wider significance, shall try to point out a supervision that supervises, and not burden you with theoretical considerations.

Point, if you please, to any institution of admittedly high standards of care, then cast about for the reason for these standards, and it will be discovered in the executive head. In such an institution there is a spirit of pride in the work, enthusiasm, and emulation; and I dare say that in none such will there be found the blight and shadow of politics. It will be found that the staff of medical officers and the nursing force are composed of men and women of lofty ideals and a lively sense of accountability; and, as a matter of fact, it little signifies whether these institutions are or are not visited by perambulating boards or salaried commissioners. In good institutions the standard of care must be what the medical officers make it. Water will not rise higher than its source, and subordinates will not be found in advance of their superiors. A medical officer imbued with high principles, full of lofty ideals and philanthropic sentiments, will impress his personality upon the institution. This is inevitable. Such qualities being lacking in the chief, subordinates will be in turn

neglectful, careless, immoral, and cruel. Nothing will so disjoint an institution for the insane as its administration by a truckling, time-serving politician. Some one always suffers; and, the end in view being no longer the welfare of the patients, but the habilitation of a political machine, who shall it be but the patients themselves?

I would not be understood as minimizing the importance of the work of state charities boards, and commissions in insanity. I have received in the past too much of encouragement, I have heard too many helpful words, I have listened to too many useful suggestions to underestimate the services of such. They are a necessity, they comfort the tax-payer, they often supply a useful court of appeal or arbitration, and in different ways promote a sentiment of confidence so essential to the success of any enterprise, from that of the plumber to that of the Secretary of the Treasury. But, when it comes to the practical work of supervision, this must lie in the institution itself. Perfunctory visits of inspection are of little value, as a rule. Frequently the time of the visitor is absorbed with non-essentials. Those matters are apt to be noted and commented upon that are obvious and conspicuous, matters which in the next half-hour's routine would have been corrected without suggestion.

As for boards of trustees, these are, in my humble judgment, practically indispensable for the proper performance of the work of institutions. If constituted as they should be, they are a tower of strength to the superintendent. They hold up his hands, they share his responsibilities and lighten his burdens. They are close to patients, and in their attention to the financial side do not overlook their reason for being, which is safeguarding the interests of the insane and contributing to their restoration to health. Such a board of trustees selects its medical officers with the same reference to their capability, their integrity, and their qualification for the work in hand which as individual members they apply in the management of their own business. Given an organization of this character, there remains little to be desired in lines purely supervisory.

As bearing upon this question, I believe it to be necessary for the well-being of the insane that the conditions grouped under the general head "Insanity" should be regarded purely from the medical and psychological side. There is an opportunity for development of public sentiment along these lines which will be productive of untold good. Insane conditions are not taken seriously enough.

Between the maudlin gush of the shallow sentimentalist and the pestiferous flings of the flippant, the insane have a hard time. I have no patience with the false sentiment of shrinking sensitiveness so frequently voiced by those of finer clay who could not, owing to their extreme sympathy and impressionability, take on the work which we, calloused to suffering, apparently enjoy. The foundation of success in treatment is sympathetic relations, and these can only be brought about by careful study. On the other hand, the trifling or brutal references to insane conditions on the part of the indifferent are almost intolerable to those who are aware of their poisonous sting. No one would think of being flippant in the sick-room of a delirious patient. Extravagant expressions would be passed by unnoticed and never jokingly repeated. The delusions of the insane are but another phase of disordered mental operations, but, alas how differently received!

Surrounding the treatment of mental disease in institutions, there has been more or less of apparent mystery, one reason for this lying in the character of the manifestations of disease, another in the attitude of the public mind which makes indiscriminate visiting in the wards of asylums impossible. Visiting might be much more general and practically unrestricted except for abnormal curiosity and unwholesome craving for sensation which too frequently actuates those seeking admission. In the past twenty years there has been great improvement in this respect; and it is fair to expect that, with growing information on the part of the public as to what insanity is, an enlarged appreciation of the rights of the insane to delicate and humane treatment, visiting may be made sufficiently general in hospitals to satisfy the public that nothing goes on behind their walls which the officers would conceal from the light of day, that whatever of secrecy surrounds the work is necessitated by personal and professional relations to patients.

The helpful, encouraging, and comforting supervision of the insane comes from those who are for one reason or another near to them. I do not refer exclusively to relatives, visits of such often proving harmful, but to officials from their county whom they have previously known,— their physician, their pastor, if he is judicious, their lawyer, if he is honest. Visits from these are little incidents in the life of the patient that are of material assistance. Through such visits the medical officers are frequently advised of trifles that had not pre-

viously been brought to light touching the mental operations, the anxieties, the needs, the longings, which, changed, relieved, or gratified, contribute so much to the patient's well-being. Visits from county officers are often of much value. Judges of probate should not feel that their responsibility ceases with placing patients in hospital care, but by personal visitation from time to time should acquaint themselves with their conditions. Patients particularly appreciate such visits, because they are at the same time neighborly and semi-official. Trustees should be appointed from the district whence the population of the hospital is derived. A trustee broadly loyal to the establishment and sympathetically interested in patients can often, through conversation, inspire confidence, if this is lacking, hold out hope, if this is dim, relieve doubts, if they are in existence, particularly concerning affairs at home, and thereby contribute his part to the patient's recovery. All that is indispensably necessary is that the trustee should have good sound sense, a modicum of tact, and perfect honesty. No amount of red-tape office work, no stack of impossible blank forms for reports, no number of gloomy visitations from ponderous, overweighted officials, can take the place of individual, personal, helpful visitation from those in friendly relations with patients; and just as, under certain conditions, the loyal and helpful trustee, lawyer, physician, or minister, may add his mite to the hospital's success, so may the mischievous, suspicious, and self-sufficient visitor destroy in a fifteen minutes' interview an upbuilding which the medical officers and nurses have been engaged upon for months. I remember with great regret and no little indignation the slough of despond into which a girl apparently convalescent from melancholia was plunged through the vapid talk of one holding peculiar theosophico-Christian Scientist views, which, promulgated with all good intention, resulted in chaotic ruin to the patient's peace of mind.

That there may be supervision of the insane in institutions which is in any degree adequate, complete sympathy in aims must exist among trustees, medical officers, and employees, more particularly nurses. To this end I know of no agency so important as the nurses' training school. As teachers and pupils, the staff and nurses are brought into helpful association. Knowing the reason why disorder exists facilitates its correction. Appreciating the reasons for departure from conventional standards of thinking, feeling, and act-

ing causes the nurse to be more tolerant of peculiarities, and develops that judicial habit of mind which study, and nothing but study, can bring about. As bearing upon the question of supervision, I would also mention the importance of the teaching of medical students in the wards of hospitals. In my observation medical students, whatever their reputation may be for demonstrativeness and indifference to public sentiment, have invariably conducted themselves among patients with a degree of decorum which might furnish an example to the wisest. Visits from students in company with their professors should be encouraged.

Guardian societies and societies for after-care, organized on a plan similar to that proposed by Dr. Morel in a paper read at the Twenty-sixth Conference, would find a wide field of usefulness, particularly in the supervision of those patients discharged from institutions who, from ineptitude, impaired general health, or lack of confidence on the part of the public, find difficulty in obtaining employment, and are, in consequence, menaced by the danger of a return of mental disturbance.

To sum up, an adequate system of state supervision requires: —

First. A helpful attitude on the part of the public, which will enable it to come into closer relations with patients without subsequent detriment to the patients' interests.

Second. A system of state supervision should contemplate unrestricted communication with relatives, except when these are persistent and unreasonable and where, from lack of tact or judgment or individual eccentricity, the patient's improvement is arrested by it. Under circumstances such as these, where the issue is joined between the superintendent and friends, boards of trustees should have the power to decide the question in the interests of the patient.

Third. The system should require practically unrestricted communication with attorneys and physicians by letter or in person, having in view, in the first instance, the protection of his property interests and, in the second, the general well-being of the patient. At least one letter in a week should be permitted to go out at the expense of the institution to attorney, guardian, wife, mother, father, brother, sister, physician, or state official.

Fourth. A useful system should permit and, if possible, require at least one visit annually on the part of a representative from the county, preferably the judge of probate, to every patient under treatment from that county.

Fifth. There should be wide-open doors to medical students visiting institutions with their teachers. This should not, I think, be made a statutory requirement; but any well-governed institution will gladly welcome them, provided visits are not too frequent.

Sixth. The doors of the institution should be opened to the public pretty generally, at least that portion of the public having a legitimate, intelligent interest, and who are able to suppress their "ohs" and "ahs," leave patronizing airs behind, and meet patients in a manner precisely the same as they would meet neighbors in their own houses.

Seventh. In Michigan the Joint Board of Trustees is an excellent working body. It meets twice a year at one of the state institutions. Matters of general concern are discussed, and the general policy of institution management, referring to the state as a whole, settled upon. Such a board is of great value, and should appoint from its membership a committee of one from each institution to visit together all the wards of every institution during the year.

Eighth. Inspection by state boards, for reasons already given, should be frequent. It matters little what these boards are called or with how much legal authority invested. If they are composed of capable, thoughtful, earnest men and women, any useful suggestions they may make (and omniscience cannot be expected from them any more than from other boards) will be acted upon by the conscientious medical superintendent such as we have placed in office and are talking about.

Ninth. Visitation of patients and supervision of discharged patients by members of guardian and after-care societies would be of great practical value.

Tenth. Legislative committees should not be denied admission to institutions, provided they behave themselves. It is told of a member of the legislature visiting the wards of an asylum, not more than a hundred thousand miles from the borders of Michigan, that he inquired of the superintendent, "Doctor, what do I understand by the moral treatment of the insane?" He was visiting the wards at the time the sage inquiry was emitted. "Take off your hat, sir," said the superintendent: that is moral treatment.

Eleventh. Lastly and most important of all is the training school. Developed to its ideal possibilities, I am satisfied there is no agency better calculated to make supervision from outside sources unnecessary.

THE INSANE ASYLUM OF PORTO RICO.

BY F. R. GOENAGA, M.D., SUPERINTENDENT.

In appointing me a delegate to this meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the honorable governor of Porto Rico has conferred upon me an unmerited honor. Upon finding myself here, two sentiments — pleasure and timidity — strive for the mastery in my bosom. I experience the former sentiment by being brought into contact with the progress you have attained in matters which tend to the welfare of humanity, and the latter because of the vague uneasiness which always takes possession of our energies when we are convinced of our inability to rise to the occasion. Pardon, then, my wavering speech; for I shall unite brevity to its poverty.

I am the happy bearer of affectionate greetings from the honorable governor of my native isle, who represents the people of Porto Rico and their sentiments, and pray you to accept them in the name of my little country, whose inhabitants are so eager to be in harmony with you and your great people, in principle and in line of conduct.

I was appointed physician for the insane asylum of San Juan in the year 1894, since which time I have followed, in my personal experience, the uninterrupted course and varying vicissitudes — sometimes favorable, at others adverse — of that establishment.

In a report that I wrote in the month of June, 1900, and which it gives me pleasure to hand to your Secretary, there is a collection of curious data expressed in the style of those times, the most interesting of which I have been able to discover buried in the dust of the long-forgotten archives of the Spanish government from the early days of the charitable institution, 1810, up to the present time of transformation and incessant and growing activity. It being too long to be read at the present meeting, and perhaps too short if epitomized, I shall, therefore, only state with due conciseness the most notable dates and prominent evolutions.

Some time during the year 1844 lunatics were collected from various parts of the island, and were for the first time given shelter in the asylum; but, by degrees, female patients, orphans, paupers, and criminals of all kinds were crowded in, and mixed in shameful confusion. The man who to-day reads the history of that period, and learns the indiscriminate manner in which human beings were heaped

together and penned behind bolts under the surveillance of a brutal jailer, is horrified at such a state of affairs. Even as late as the year 1894, when I took possession of my office and entered upon the discharge of my duties, the improvements in the establishment were limited to mere unimportant repairs to the buildings, the orphans and insane of both sexes continuing under the same supervision.

Under the influence of obsolete methods and preference for all that was mystical, in an atmosphere vitiated by superstition and fanaticism, dwelling in narrow, dark, and melancholy galleries, like vaulted convents dimly lighted, and behind walls and iron bars as in mediæval times, a visitor was inspired with a horrid repugnance and with compassion for the human beings crowded there, lacking all methodical provision and pitying care.

I was then obliged to present a report to the Spanish government, enumerating the most serious defects and indicating the means that my judgment suggested for their correction; but mine was a vain effort and pains fruitlessly taken, having opposed to me a multitude of documents with their inevitable red tape attached, interviews to be held, reports to be made, appeals, delays, and interminable time-consuming resolutions.

The children in the establishment had religious seclusion in the place of education, and the insane close confinement for shelter, as though they were criminals. Nothing short of that exceptional occurrence of supreme historical import — the American advent — could have shaken off the marasmus that fed upon the life of the establishment. With its arrival the hindrances to the development of public charities disappeared. By yielding to the influence of generous and irresistible currents the charitable institutions of Porto Rico have made great advances. The internal arrangements, the cleanliness observed, the careful attention to hygiene, the separation of sexes, the distinction as to age, and the assignment of suitable tasks to these, together with the enlargement of the buildings, their illumination, the space, the comfort, and, in fact, all that tells of the arrival of a great nation, young and vigorous, in the promotion of universal civilization, are seen now by one who visits the Insane Asylum of San Juan. Upon an examination of its interior it may well be affirmed that it is a diminutive imitation of the superior arrangement and of the careful management given to the public and private charitable institutions in our continent; that is

of course, as far as it has been possible for us to imitate them in the short space of time we have had at our disposal for that purpose.

The comparison of the statistical data of the establishment affords an agreeable surprise.

From the years 1889 to 1899 the gratifying result of 12 per cent. patients cured and 28 per cent. death-rate was obtained. A year later, from 1899 to 1900, the rate of cures rose to 14 per cent., while the death-rate fell to 24 per cent.; and in the following year — 1900 to 1901 — the rate of cures finally rose above the death-rate, the former being 16 and the latter 15 per cent.

During the Spanish régime the Sisters of Charity formed the chief feature of the institution. Bound by their rigorous religious prescriptions, not to call it bigotry, arbiters of its internal affairs, humored by the government as if every charitable sentiment emanated from them, they treated the insane as fit subjects for religious conversion, never heeding the physician's scientific advice, and even disobeying the superintendent's instructions. But a change occurred from the continuous struggle to enforce the rules and regulations governing the establishment, and the undercurrent of opposition, the conflict between compassion and harshness, liberty and mysticism, progress and stagnation; and a new order of things was ultimately brought about by the appointment of female nurses, not influenced alone by religious zeal, but who are more susceptible to family affection, more humane, and who understand more fully what is really right, and in harmony with the times, and who more fully comprehend the sweetness of individual liberty, and respect to a greater extent every man's religious opinions. Since the year 1900 these have converted the Insane Asylum into a peaceful refuge of concord, charitable views, and unchanging moral calmness.

I must, in justice, attribute these and numerous other advantages to the high character and ability of the Director of Charities, Mr. B. H. Osterhoudt.

The statistics of the Insane Asylum for the fiscal year from 1901 to 1902 show a rate of 22 per cent. cured, which is 6 per cent. increase upon the progress made in this respect during the previous year. The 15 per cent. death-rate has remained the same.

The admissions made during the year from 1901 to 1902, considered apart, give a rate of 25 per cent. cured, and a 10 per cent. death-rate,— figures never before obtained since the foundation of the establishment.

The sanitary improvements and the simplicity of procedure for the admission of inmates tend to produce these favorable results. Delay no longer stands in the way of charitable aid which serves the double purpose of bringing humanitarian assistance to the sufferers at the very beginning of their mental disorder, thus avoiding the loss of health produced by their being secluded without assistance, and a prey to poverty in apartments which are deplorable on account of their lack of hygienic conditions; and their arrival at this charitable institution when it is already too late, converted into spectres, and sometimes with traces of cruel treatment, is also prevented. We have indeed witnessed during this year two cases in which the patient died a few hours after being admitted, but those cases are rare. In past years they were so frequent that it became necessary to take active steps for the suppression of their growing frequency.

The authorities now provide against the treating the insane as if they were criminals or prisoners, and have them taken to the asylum by proper and prudent means.

New wards in the male department, provided with modern drainage, constitute a noteworthy means of security and hygiene.

All of these noteworthy advantages so evident to all the Porto Ricans who have visited the various departments of the Insane Asylum show the evolution brought about by the Americans in the several branches of charities, and are most pleasing to their hearts. I am pleased to affirm this before you.

VILLAGE CARE FOR THE INSANE.

BY JULIA C. LATHROP, HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO.

We have seen set forth here to-night a broader, more highly differentiated, more economical, and more humane general plan for the public care of the insane than is anywhere in complete operation, although our greatest encouragement for its realization lies in such instances already apparent as the Kalamazoo Colony for chronic cases, the simple rural freedom of some of the Wisconsin county asylums, and the few special hospitals and special hospital wards for acute cases existing or proposed in various states.

I want to bring forward and to illustrate in some detail a kind of care for the insane whose limitations are admitted at the outset, but which I believe to be well worth our serious attention as offering a modification and enlargement of our present methods. This is family care for certain classes of quiet patients, already practiced in various European countries and notably growing in popularity abroad. It is said to exist in Russia, Spain, Norway, and Holland, as well as in Germany, France, Belgium, and Scotland. Technical discussions of the classes of patients to be thus cared for will be found in the annual reports of Dun-sur-Auron and of Ainay; in the writings of Dr. Peeters, director at Gheel, and of Sir John Sibbald, former member of the Scotch Lunacy Commission; and in the annual reports of that commission.*

We have heard many times in this Conference of the classic example of family care for the insane in the Belgian village of Gheel. It was for a long time believed that the inhabitants of this village, with their inherited generations of training, with their pious tradition of Saint Dymphna, were necessarily unique in their ability to care for the insane. And, indeed, for these reasons, Gheel might hardly seem to form an argument, convincing as are the freedom, the comfort, the order, the medical supervision, when personally seen and examined. The village of Lierneux, which lies at the other end of Belgium from Gheel, does, however, furnish an argument. It was felt in the early '80's that some provision for patients of the types cared for at Gheel was necessary in Southern Belgium, and after much consideration Lierneux was chosen for the experiment. The effort was to create deliberately such village care as was the growth of centuries at Gheel. The burgomaster protested, and is reported to have said, "Nothing is so contagious as insanity, and while I am burgomaster no insane person shall ever enter Lierneux." Nevertheless, four patients were sent in 1884 with a nurse, who instructed the villagers in their care. The new boarders were welcomed, and were so much liked that applications to the medical authorities for patients to be taken as boarders came in with almost embarrassing rapidity. In 1896 there were 420 patients

*A Congress on l'Assistance Familiale was held in Paris during the Exposition of 1900 to discuss the family care of the insane, of children, old people, and certain classes of invalids. A journal devoted to the consideration of this subject is published under the editorship of Dr. A. Marie, who installed the colony for the insane at Dun-sur-Auron. It is entitled *L'Assistance Familiale*, and is published at 58 Rue de Douai, Paris.

at Lierneux, and the undertaking has continued to prosper. The reports of the superintendent show the same features of simplicity, freedom, comfort, and adequate medical supervision as at Gheel. It is evident that in this instance there was nothing to depend upon but the actual experience of those who took patients to board, and that, as the burgomaster's opposition showed, there was much scepticism and disapproval to overcome. The Belgian asylums are under state control, and the inspector-general has the same supervision over Gheel and Lierneux as over the closed asylums. Each colony has a local board corresponding to a board of trustees. At the head of the colony is a superintendent who is a physician, with a staff of assistant physicians, and *gardes* who correspond to our hospital supervisors. The staff physicians and *gardes* are engaged in constant visiting of the patients in their boarding-places. In the centre of each colony is a small hospital to which new patients are brought for observation before being assigned to homes, and to which patients who become sick or unfit for family care can be taken at once. Curiously enough, while the family care of insane is many centuries old in Gheel, the beginning of this present careful administrative system in Belgium dates from the Napoleonic occupation in 1800.

Still more significant for us is the opening in 1892 by the French of a colony for women at Dun-sur-Auron, and the opening in 1900 at Ainay, a neighboring village, of a colony for men patients. This was only undertaken after the French had studied what is known as the Berlin system,* as well as the older Belgian and Scotch plans.†

As to the Berlin system, it may suffice here to say that in 1888, after some years of effort on the part of Dr. Sander, superintendent of the Dalldorf asylum, official sanction was given to a system of urban family care under the immediate supervision of the asylum physicians, to be employed for patients who were in a state to be benefited by removal from the asylum, but unfit for absolute discharge.

We are now specially interested, however, in the methods of permanent care practised in Belgium, France, and Scotland.

* L'Assistance Familiale Urbaine pour les Aliénés Inoffensifs (Système Berlinois). MM. A. Marie et Manheimer-Gommes. Reprinted in *L'Assistance Familiale*, July 31, 1902.

† Memoire, Dr. A. Marie, presented at Congrès International d'Assistance Publique et de Bienfaisance Privée, Paris, 1900.

Dun-sur-Auron is a village in the middle of France, about thirty miles from Bourges, and was carefully selected as a favorable place for an experiment in sending elderly women patients out from the overburdened Paris asylums. It was begun in 1892, when a few quiet old women were sent there to board. The villagers were glad to receive them; and, although later groups showed more eccentricity, they were still desired as boarders.

At Dun on Jan. 1, 1900, there were 654 patients, of whom four were men; but all the others were old women, for which class the colony was designed. I saw the village in June, 1900, eight years after the first patients were sent. An old inn opened off the main street, whose row of dwellings was broken on the opposite side by the church and a pretty open square. This inn had been turned into a superintendent's house and a little hospital. In the big gardens beyond, another hospital for the care of patients who should become too feeble or too demented for family care was nearly completed. One assistant physician was with the superintendent: the other was stationed at one of the outlying hamlets where patients were boarded, and from which he could more easily supervise his district. As we walked down the village street toward dusk, we met a woman leading a little child, who hopped contentedly along by her side. The woman was a boarded-out patient; and she explained that a neighbor was ill, and she was helping by caring for the neighbor's child. Notice that the patient was not the compelled nurse of her own hostess's child, but that she was lending her friendly aid to a sick friend.

We called at various houses, and had such a glimpse of the life as was possible in a very brief visit. Usually, the patients had the best room in the house. Sometimes there was one patient in a house. Where there were two, they usually shared one room. All the rooms seemed comfortable. Some were adorned with photographs of relatives, and expressed by sundry little touches the occupants' tastes and individuality. Some of the women worked in the sewing-room in which the clothing of the patients was made. There was the neighborly surveillance unavoidable in village life of any type, and the constant supervision of the physicians and attendants going about and in and out of the house.

In 1900 it was determined to open at Ainay, a village contiguous to Dun, a colony for men. The report of the director, Dr. Lwolff, covering the installation and the first year of the colony, and

describing the life as the number of patients grew to one hundred at the end of the year, is so interesting, and is written with such candor, that we would gladly quote it in full; but some brief extracts will serve to give an idea of the simple beginning. He says: —

On taking possession of my post, June 1, 1900, I found at Ainay, which was then an annex of the colony at Dun, 29 women boarders and 1 man. An attempt to install a colony for men was to be made, and I was to send all the women to Dun. But I knew that it was important as well from the financial as from the medical standpoint to have shops in which the patients should work, and at my request the administration authorized me to retain a certain number of women (15) in order to open a sewing-room with their aid. I will say at once that the simultaneous presence of women and men in the colony does not present any difficulty and has occasioned no annoyance. This has long been the common experience, however; and all the foreign colonies are mixed colonies. . . .

The first question which proposed itself was the following: Would the population of Ainay receive men patients? Protestations had been many: they were afraid of men, they thought them intractable, violent, dangerous, etc. It seemed especially that it would be absolutely impossible to place them in the households of widows. Thus at that period it required a certain courage to accept our patients. We had chosen among our guardians (*nourricières*) two widows more intelligent and having more initiative than the others; and, after long discussions and veritable conferences upon insanity, we were able to persuade them each to take a male patient on trial. The experiment once tried, all fears vanished; and now we have among our nurses nineteen widows with or without children.

At the time this report was written there were 100 patients at Ainay, so that it will be seen that nearly one-fifth were domiciled under the care of women only. Dr. Lwolff adds, with what we trust is an exaggerated enthusiasm for his men charges: —

Women have become much more difficult to place. They are charged with being meddling, gossiping, difficult to please, indiscreet, interfering in houshold affairs.

But he concedes that

Certain nurses possessing a little means ask by preference for quiet women patients to keep them company. These quiet women make their beds in the morning, go to work during the day in the sewing-room, return at meal hours, and pass their evenings in the house. This sort of existence suits their guardians, who thus avoid entire solitude . . .

We have said that a supervisor (*garde-section*) is specially attached to the infirmary.* He lives there with his wife, who cooks for the sick. He is aided by a nurse chosen from the boarded-out patients (*pensionnaires*). In case of need a second nurse comes to pass the night. The general direction of the infirmary is confided to the head woman in charge of the clothes-room, who has great skill with the insane. Perforce and not without hesitation did we at first intrust to a woman the duty of superintendent in a ward of insane men. No difficulty has resulted up to the present time, notwithstanding the frequent presence of excited patients, hard to care for, and paralytics. If our male supervisor has had to complain of some words or rude gestures on the part of the patients, the woman superintendent and the supervisor's wife have always been respected and obeyed by these insane men. . . .

We have in the colony many infirm and very aged boarders. These stay by the fire in winter or on a seat in the court or in the street when they do not keep their beds. The others, the well ones, try to find work. . . .

Thus in the morning, at noon and night, one sees our boarders going with buckets to the spring or the wells to bring water for the house. Some again saw the wood, split and pile it.

The patients take care of the children of their guardians. They walk out with them, and sometimes they are charged with the duty of taking them to school and bringing them home. I do not want to draw an idyllic picture here, but these are facts of daily occurrence. I confess that I do not view without anxiety this, to my mind, exaggerated confidence of the guardians. I do not think it prudent to intrust a child to a patient for long hours. But, notwithstanding all my remarks, the guardians continue to do this.

It is expressly understood that the labor of the patients does not belong to the guardians, and that the patient can dispose of his time as he likes. Moreover, we know of no boarders in the colony whom it would be possible to make work in spite of themselves. They know their rights very well, and we have never ascertained an attempt of this sort on the part of the inhabitants.

Some of our boarders work with their guardians in the fields, tend the sheep, the ducks, turkeys, etc., receiving in return gratuities,—coffee, a few sous. But when work with the guardians is lacking, or if the patients do not want to work for them, they seek an occupation among the people of the village. We have those who cut wood, mow, work in the gardens, carry water, occupy themselves with household tasks. Some work with the shoemakers, tinkers, etc. An upholsterer has re-covered the furniture in all the salons of Ainay. One gives lessons in writing. We have one who keeps accounts and writes up the books of the town merchants. A former professor gives lessons in French to the children of two notable merchants of

* Here, as at Dun, there is a small central hospital or infirmary.

the place. An old regimental sub-director of music gives violin lessons. A mechanic repairs all the sewing-machines. One of our patients does ironing, etc.

And thus the list goes on beyond my space to quote.

Extracts from various letters are given by Dr. Lwolff, showing how the patients write to their friends about the life in the colony. He continues: —

From the letters we have quoted above, it can be seen already that at the end of a very short time there exists in the closed asylums of the Seine a current of opinion favorable to the family régime. It is not without surprise that we hear the new *pensionnaires* tell us on their arrival: "Oh, yes, we understand, doctor: one is free, but one must come back at meal time. It is forbidden to enter the cafés and wine-shops. The recreation-room is open all day," etc.

In the summer of 1898 I went to Scotland to see what I could in a brief visit of the Scotch care of the insane, which is authoritatively recognized as the most complete and efficient in the world. I saw various admirable asylums, in some of which there was a simplicity of structure, a freedom and comfort and a respect for the patients' individuality, most gratifying and inspiring. The feature, however, which I most desired to see was the boarding out of patients in private families.* These patients are parish charges, under the immediate care of parish officials, but under the supervision and control of the General Board of Lunacy Commissioners. This board alone can grant permission to a family to receive insane boarders. With Dr. John Frazer, Commissioner in Lunacy, and Mr. Spence, Secretary of the Commission, I spent a day in Lanarkshire on the upper Clyde, going from cottage to cottage and seeing the patients as they lived with their "guardians," as those are called who take patients into their houses to board. Everywhere the housing was very simple. Frequently there was only the "but" and the "ben," the kitchen and parlor, with a double box-bed in each and a narrow passage between, which makes the typical Scotch cottage. The cleanliness was admirable. The cottages were well furnished, and in every instance had a pleasant air of homely comfort. In the course of the day we visited twelve dwellings and saw 33 patients, of

*On Jan. 1, 1901, there were 2,793 patients in private dwellings in Scotland, of whom 1,111 were men and 1,682 were women. The total number of insane in Scotland at the same date was 15,899. Forty-third Report General Board Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland.

whom the greater number were women. In Lanarkshire, with a population of 21,442, there were 94 patients in the year 1901. The reports state expressly and show by tables that there is a distinct purpose not to have an aggregation of patients in any one locality, and the visits made in Lanark certainly indicated that this purpose is carried out in that neighborhood

The patients eat and work, and go to church if they like with their guardians. With few exceptions there seemed marked contentment, and a single complaint of being asked to do too much scrubbing seemed to indicate that due proportion of discontent which is by no means peculiar to insanity rather than any real hardship. In one of the cottages a vigorous old woman was seen. She was lighting her pipe at the fireplace with a comfortable air of possession. We were told that, when first sent from the asylum, she had been rather "wild," lifted her stick when crossed or annoyed, etc. Now she was a quiet, orderly person, much interested in some young lads who were also boarded in the house; and with her corner by the fire, her pipe, and her grandmotherly fussing over the boys, she really had a nibble at some of the joys which appertain to old age.

In another cottage three men were boarded. The head of the house raised fruit for market, and one of the boarders who had been a gardener now helped in the kind of work he knew how to do. The men all came in to see the commissioner and the secretary; but one, John, soon slipped out quietly. The hostess said, "Would you like to see where John is gone?" and took me through the passage and back garden into the next cottage where her daughter-in-law lived. John was found sitting on a little cricket, rocking a low wooden cradle in which slept a baby. The young mother said that the baby was fretful, and she did not know how ever she could get through her work without John to "mind" him. That baby was John's supreme interest and patient care. Not long after I was visiting an American asylum of the usual baronial castle type, and in a locked ward of rather violent patients was an elderly woman of neat appearance, knitting very skilfully. I asked her where she learned to knit, and she said with a jerk of her thumb, "About forty mile over there." When I confessed that I could not knit, she said, "Well, where was you raised?" and when I answered, "At the northern end of the state," she retorted with a jovial smile to take out the sting, "Well, do they work or do they steal for a living up there?" The attendants

said she could live perfectly well outside "if she only had some one to look after her a bit." In the main building a few hundred feet distant, apparently, but really as remote as Europe, she had heard that there was a new baby in the family of one of the staff physicians, and sent a pair of pretty socks of her knitting to this child she probably would never see. She was far more expensively housed than John. The great building in which she lived was set in the midst of a splendid park instead of a humble cottager's garden, her food and clothing came out of a far higher per capita than his; but, as for me or my kin, I would choose the lot of John.

I quote from a letter written by Mr. T. W. L. Spence, Secretary of the Scotch Lunacy Commission, in reply to my inquiry as to the present status of boarding-out in Scotland: —

With regard to the decrease of patients in private dwellings it should be kept in mind that we have still 20 per cent., or one-fifth, of all our insane poor under private care, which may be thought a sufficient proportion, considering that only a selected class of patients is suitable for being provided for in that manner. There has, however, in late years been an actual decrease to a small extent notwithstanding the growth of population and of the numbers of certified insane. The decrease has occurred chiefly in the class of patients who are under the care of *relatives*. The following table shows the number living respectively with relatives and strangers in private houses during the past twenty or twenty-one years: —

	With Relatives.	*With Strangers.*	*Total.*
1881	906	610	1,516
1886	967	1,091	2,058
1891	1,043	1,446	2,489
1896	1,009	1,691	2,700
1901	987	1,682	2,669
1902	954	1,677	2,631

You will observe that those with relatives increased with fair rapidity from 1881 to 1891, since which date they have declined in number to an almost equal extent. Those with strangers (the true "boarded out" insane poor), on the other hand, rose by leaps from 1881 to 1896, since which year they have decreased by a trifling number only,— a decrease which a single active inspector of poor or an exceptionally favorable death-rate would wipe out in a year. There is nothing really discouraging in this and no evidence whatever to show that the care of patients in private dwellings has proved a failure in Scotland or has been tried and found wanting. On the contrary, nothing has happened which in the least degree has shaken the board's confidence in the present or future of the system. The falling off in the number cared for in their own fami-

lies is, I believe, in the main due to much the same causes as those which have led to an increase in the number of patients sent to asylums, such as the growing unwillingness among the poorer classes to submit to all that is involved in keeping at home insane and useless relatives who require constant attention for their proper care, and who may have peculiarities more or less unfitting them for home life. As regards the falling off, or, perhaps, I should rather say arrest of the increase in the number of those removed from asylums and boarded with strangers, I do not think that this can be fairly attributed to the superintendents of asylums to discharge useful patients, because, although such unwillingness is quite natural and does undoubtedly exist, it has been no more active during the years from 1896 to 1902 than it was during the preceding fifteen years in which the number of patients with strangers rose rapidly. I think it must rather be looked for in the fact that in some of the larger parishes, which have been most active in boarding out, there has occurred to some extent a temporary exhaustion of the number of patients more obviously suitable for that mode of care. There is, however, believed to be in most asylums a large body of patients chiefly belonging to the smaller parishes who are quite fitted for private care. The failure to remove such patients must be attributed (1) to the absence of energetic pressure for their removal on the part of the asylum authorities; (2) to the unwillingness of parochial officials to take a step which involves future personal trouble in supervising the patient; and (3) to the fact that the difference between the cost of maintaining patients in private dwellings and asylums is not now quite so emphatic as it formerly was, though it is still in the case of most asylums considerable. Doubtless all these causes contribute more or less to the retention in asylums of patients suitable for private care. But it should be kept in mind that the rate of increase in those boarded out with strangers, which occurred in the year preceding 1896, could not be maintained constantly, as the number of suitable patients is not unlimited, though probably not yet by any means exhausted.

We may say that for our purpose the most significant fact in the Scotch figures is that, although there has been a decrease in the number boarded with relatives, the number boarded with strangers, true boarded-out patients, has, on the whole, increased, and that the increase in those boarded with strangers seems the true test of the vitality of the system. We quote from the report of Dr. Charles MacPherson as to the condition of Scotch boarded out patients.* Dr. MacPherson is one of the deputies of the general board; and it has been his duty for many years to visit these patients, and keep informed as to their condition.

* Appendix C, Forty-third Report General Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland.

The important questions then are: Is it necessary in the public interest that these patients should be detained in public institutions? and is it to their personal advantage, on the score of health, happiness, and comfort? The first question is disposed of by the fact that during the forty-three years in which this system has been in operation there has only been one serious assault committed by a boarded-out patient,—a record of success which no asylum can equal. Of course, this success resulted from most careful selection of patients; and most credit is due to asylum superintendents for the careful manner in which this selection has been made. As regards the other question: whether it is to the personal advantage of the patient to remove him from an institution and place him in a private house, we have the testimony of the patients themselves,—when they are capable of giving it,—in at least 90 per cent. of the cases, that they much prefer their life in the country; and we have the evidence, all through these years, of the deputy commissioners, whose duty it was to visit them, testifying to marked physical and mental improvement in many cases, even in cases boarded in very humble homes, where the dietary was inferior to that of the asylum. The freedom from irksome discipline, and the social advantage of mixing with sane people of their own rank in life and on a footing of equality, has a wonderfully beneficial effect, and has resulted, in not a few cases, in complete recovery. . . .

Many of these can and do appreciate their freedom, and derive much pleasure from a life in a family occupying much the same social position as they did themselves, before their mental trouble changed the course of their lives. We constantly see examples: men working in the garden or field or farm offices alongside of their guardians, evidently thoroughly enjoying life, and looking healthy and robust; women doing all sorts of household work, and proving active and useful members of the family. True, it may be said that now, when asylums have mostly considerable farms attached to them, the same opportunities of healthy outdoor work exist there. But it is different. There they are one of a squad of patients working under the eye of an attendant; here they are mingling with sane men, women, and children, practically on a footing of equality, and all their surroundings tend to make them forget that they are different from other people. To this fact I principally attribute the undoubted improvement which has not infrequently ended in recovery, and in the patient ceasing to be a burden on the public funds.

That patients could be found in the United States who could live safely thus is proved in the most conclusive and melancholy manner to those familiar with county poorhouses to which chronic insane are returned. How often does one see that class which is not violent nor helpless, going in and out freely with the sane paupers,

sharing their poor lot at bed and board, and innocently monopolizing the work of the place! How often do county poorhouse superintendents say: "The insane are the only workers we have. The others either can't or won't work." If they live quiet, orderly lives in such surroundings, and they do, surely they could be relied upon with the protection of a good home. The Scotch and the Belgians alike agree in caring for about 20 per cent. of the entire insane population of those countries by boarding out. As these nations have erected family care into an established and general feature of a national system, it might be a not unreasonable hypothesis that there is an approximate proportion of the population of those in our locked hospitals who may be presumed to be equally safe at large.

Again in unrecognized ways there has been a placing out going on in our country for many years. For example, in visiting one of the Wisconsin county asylums, I asked the superintendent if he thought boarding-out was practicable. He said, "No, I don't believe that would answer." Looking over the big farm where insane men could be seen working independently at half-a-dozen occupations, I said, "Don't you ever send any of these men out to work for any of the farmers around?" He said, "Oh, yes, I've sent out about fifty in the years I've been here; and most of them have done well."

The experiments made by Mr. Frank Sanborn in Massachusetts are also interesting evidence on this point. In 1885 Mr. Frank B. Sanborn was a lunacy commissioner in Massachusetts, and his testimony as to a brief experiment in Massachusetts (arrested by changes in the *personnel* of the commission) is of interest. I am allowed to quote from an unpublished address. After describing four cases in detail, he says:—

These four cases out of 180 whom I placed in families in three years were perhaps the most successful; but many others became self-supporting or were restored to their friends by reason of the family-care system, and the ill results of the experiment were comparatively few. There were more applicants in good families than we could well supply with boarders; and the price paid, though apparently small, was found more than sufficient in many cases, because the labor of the boarders was often valuable. Very few cases of ill-treatment occurred, and few escapes. There were no assaults; and the neighbors, who at first were alarmed at the presence of insane persons in their rural towns, soon found out there was no harm in

them. From this experience I became satisfied that the Scotch system can be introduced, under proper safeguards, in any Northern State, and would commend itself to the people as it long has in Scotland and Belgium, where they would never think of giving it up. Besides being an advantage to the patients, it saves the public the expense of building so many great asylums, and brings the knowledge of what insanity really is to many who would not otherwise understand it.

The fact that families can easily be found in the East and Middle West, at any rate, who are glad to add to their income by receiving children to board from the state, as in Massachusetts, or from private societies, as in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois, shows that there is a population willing to take trouble and responsibility, in order to earn money within their own homes. There is no difference in the class of people boarding insane and children in Scotland. In fact, the same household cares for children and insane. Certainly, if one were to keep boarders, a dispassionate observation of those classed as sane and as insane gives the preference for amiability, contentment, and non-interference to the insane. Let me reiterate that the insane to be placed in families must be carefully chosen. There are many, and those, too, in many cases made most unhappy by the seclusion, who are never safe at large. There are others, no one knows how many, but Scotland and Belgium have shown it true as to one-fifth of the whole number, who can enjoy with great benefit to themselves, and with no harm to society, almost absolute freedom. The families must be carefully chosen, just as they are now chosen by public and private authority to board children. There still linger with us the traces of the old tradition that the insane are possessed of a devil, and it is this cruel delusion which bars our doors and even our sympathies against those sick with the baffling ailment we call insanity. If familiarity taught the peasants at Gheel not contempt, but fearless sympathy and skill a thousand years ago, why should we learn less readily now?

The question of relative cost of boarding-out and of institution care is of great practical importance. In the asylums of the Department of the Seine the daily per capita cost of care is 58 cents. At the colony of Dun the daily per capita is 28 cents. At Gheel and at Lierneux the cost is about the same as at Dun.*

* "En effet, le prix de pension d'un malade dans les Asiles de la Seine est de 2.90. A la colonie de Dun, il s'est abaissé à 1.40 (chiffre qui est le même qu'à Gheel et à Lierneux)."—*L'Assistance Familiale urbaine pour les aliénés Inoffensifs.* MM. A. Marie et Manheimer-Gommes. Published in *L'Assistance Familiale,* July 31, 1902.

In Scotland the current cost of boarding-out is about two-thirds that of hospital care. This statement disregards the item of the value of the hospital plant; *i.e.*, the interest on the sum which is sunk in the building and improvements and repairs, and which can not be ignored in public financing any more than in private business operations.*

As has been said, the average cost of the bed must be added to current maintenance in order to arrive at actual cost. In American asylums this would certainly average not less than in Scotland, and many instances could be cited in which it would be far higher than the $45 which the bed is worth at the Inverness Asylum.

It will be noted that four distinct types have been mentioned: —

First. The Berlin system, in which an urban asylum boards out a fraction of its patients in close proximity,— as in the suburbs of Berlin,— retaining them under the supervision of its physicians. This is valued not only for the lessening of cost and the relief to an overcrowded institution, but also because it affords an easy way-station for convalescents in the transition from the closed asylums back to the world. It is evident from the Mémoire of Dr. Marie that he hopes that some use of this method will be made by the hospitals of the Department of the Seine.

Second. The Belgian villages, which receive both acute and chronic cases, without previous commitment to an asylum, and at Gheel, at least, epileptics and imbeciles also, of both sexes and of varying ages. Both private patients and those dependent on the public are taken and accommodated according to former habit of life so far as possible.

Third. The French villages, Dun-sur-Auron, which receives only old women, and Ainay, its neighbor, which was opened in 1900 for men. Both men and women are those transferred from the closed asylums only.

*"Each of these patients is boarded for the modest sum of 5*s*. per week,— £13 per annum. Extras in the way of clothing, medical attendance, etc., may amount to £3 10*s*. per annum, certainly not more. The total cost is thus £16 10*s*. per annum. The net cost of maintenance in the Inverness District Asylum was last year £26 3*s*. 5*d*. per head. The saving to the rate-payer by the boarding out system is thus £9 13*s*. 5*d*. for each patient, or an aggregate saving in the one colony of £328 16*s*. 2*d*. per annum on maintenance alone. This takes no account of the value of the bed, which in the case of the Inverness Asylum costs the rate-payer at present more than £9 per patient yearly. The rate of board is a small one, but, boarded as they are with people who have most of the necessaries of life growing on their small holdings, it is, after all, not unremunerative. The money paid by the parochical authorities pays the rent of their holdings, and goes a long way in providing such things as tea, sugar, etc., for the household." Report by Dr. Charles MacPherson, Appendix C., Forty-third Report General Board of Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland, p. 168.

Fourth. The Scotch plan, in which from the Lowlands to the Hebrides insane persons transferred from the closed asylums are boarded in villages, in scattered farm holdings, with crofters, etc. Both men and women are thus cared for. The patients' care is paid for by the parishes to which they belong; and they are under the immediate supervision of the parish authorities, above whom is the General Board of Lunacy Commissioners with a force of physicians as visiting deputies. No locality is allowed to become known distinctively, as one where insane patients are boarded.*

It is important to note that in the four instances referred to there is a well-organized system of public care and supervision, and that the officers intrusted with the management of the system are not political appointees in the unhappy sense, but are civil servants who have undertaken a dignified occupation with its own responsibilities and rewards, absolutely removed from the domain of politics. Such a system and such a *personnel* are essential to such an enlargement of method in the care of the insane as is meant by boarding-out.

In a photograph taken at Dun one sees a peaceful, bowery little garden with a woman sitting in the sunshine. Her face expresses that melancholy with which we are familiar in every asylum, but there is a placidity about her not so often seen behind locked doors. Is it fanciful to suggest that the open wicket which is shown leading out of the garden is a better guarantee of contentment than the jangling keys of the institution? We are well aware that long years of discussion will be needed before any plan of boarding-out can have general recognition in the United States; but is it not time to consider the subject?

* For copies of forms used to record supervision of patients and visits, see "Notes on Boarding Out in Scotland," Appendix to Illinois State Board of Charities Report, 1898.

VII.

Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Nursing.

THE WORK OF THE DISTRICT OR VISITING NURSE.

BY MISS HARRIET FULMER,

SUPERINTENDENT OF NURSES, VISITING NURSE ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO.

The following is a short résumé of the system of the relief for the destitute sick in their own homes, carried on by the district or visiting nurse: —

District or visiting nurse work covers that branch of nursing which cares for the sick poor in their own homes, when by reason of surrounding circumstances the patient may not be sent to the hospital. The work is likened to a large outdoor hospital, the various towns and localities being divided into wards or districts, the whole being responsible to the head or superintending nurse.

Philanthropic organizations providing skilled nursing care for the poor and the small wage-earners in their own homes have the advantage of having developed into such practical adjuncts to outdoor relief work among the poor that every small community is coming to look upon the organization of the visiting nurse system as a necessity. Its workings, if known and understood, must prove to the public its value in overcoming the great inadequacy of various sick relief agencies both of the county and city, caused often perhaps by lack of funds, many times unwisely and dishonestly spent. In its co-operation with kindred charities its workers are acknowledged and must be ever valuable agents in helping to place organized charity on the basis where modern effort would put it. The trained nurse as a visitor to the homes of the sick poor is unconsciously a living example of the well-worn Biblical saying, "I was

sick, and ye visited me." Her influence far outlives her actual presence, yet no class of charity workers see so quickly a response to their efforts as the visiting nurse. Daily instruction in habits of cleanliness and hygienic living to people in their own homes must some time bear fruit; and scarcely a week goes by that we do not hear from this and that quarter a story illustrating the effects of the personal contact of a woman skilled in this profession which belongs to her by reason of her birthright. Not long since one of these workers dropped in to pay a friendly visit to a family who not many months since had been patients. Here she found Tommy, a three-year-old, yelling lustily because the little eight-year-old sister insisted upon giving him a bath, the child saying with an air of great responsibility that she had promised the visiting nurse to keep herself and her whole family clean, but Tommy always behaved so badly she was getting very tired. This same little one was herself clean and tidy; and her mother has told us since that she is constantly preaching cleanliness as a guard against illness, not only to her own family, but to the neighbors as well. She has been dubbed "the little health officer" in the locality.

The need of *sick relief work* is always apparent. It requires little red tape and not much investigation. If a person is suffering from bodily ills, he is immediately "a case," no matter what condition brought the illness. Can there be any disputing the fact that the poor dying consumptive in his own cottage needs the visit of a nurse to give him clean linen and a bath, as no one other than skilled hands could do? or that the poor little child the county institution sends home because the case is "chronic," or the unfortunate woman with a malignant cancer, that no hospital will admit, need such care? If this system of relief work to the sick poor ministered only to those whom hospitals could not take, it would have even then more than ample excuse for existence; but, when we find avenues untold for just such service, it must be without question a benefaction to the poor.

The one established principle of the work is to teach and to preach cleanliness and right living in the homes and to help the people bear the burden of caring for their own sick rather than shifting the responsibility to an *institution*. Five per cent. of the cases in one society alone prove that having to care for a sick member of the family, with a nurse's advice and instruction, develops in the well members many a good quality, and places the responsibility of caring for their

own sick on the right shoulders. The policy of the Chicago Association is to teach by practical demonstration how to care for the sick and afterward to see that the lessons are carried out.

House to house nursing among the poor began in Germany. Then England took it up. It has been established in America fifteen years, but it is only within a period of five years that the work has been generally organized. At present there are fifty associations in America, employing about 140 nurses. The women employed are graduates of the large general nursing schools. In most instances the society is one of the organized charities of the city, though frequently the funds are contributed by a special club or circle. Each organization adapts itself to the special demands of the city or town, but the large general plans must be the same the world over. More and more, as time goes on, we see newer and improved methods of giving relief to needy families; but in this one branch, care of the sick in their homes, we do not see a field for a change in the methods. From first to last the care has been given by trained nurses. Since the system of visiting nursing has taken its place as one of the necessary divisions of organized philanthropy, it would seem that its workers would profit by the additional study for a few months of the various methods of other charity and relief associations. The next step in the right direction in the work in this country will be to establish a special post-graduate course for all nurses desiring to take up visiting nurse work, for too many nurses come into the work having little idea as to the requirements and demands; and during the period of perhaps their first year the organizations suffer by their lack of knowledge. In the near future the Chicago Association will establish a course of this kind where graduates from general training schools may take up and learn the work in a systematic way.

The same principle applies to the work in the visiting nurse system as in every other branch of organized charity. None but the best-trained and well-paid people should go into the field. It is the last place where makeshifts should be found. I believe that voluntary service may be glad service in some instances, but not in dealing with the morals and physical ills of unfortunate humanity. The management of the business and financial aid may be left to voluntary service, but the active workers should be taken from the ranks of those skilled not only in nursing, but in the practical work which goes for the all-round social betterment of the people.

In most organizations the visits of the nurse average from eight to twelve in one day, varying from a half hour to two hours each. A history of a typical day in a large society may not be amiss. The first visit was to a dying consumptive, where a bath and clean linen were given; the second, a bath and alcohol sponge to a man with typhoid fever; the third, dressing a varicose ulcer on the leg of a woman who makes wrappers all day long at forty cents per dozen; fifth, baths and clean linen to a family of five, all ill with typhoid fever, reported case to board of health, arranged to send patients to hospital, two hours' work required; sixth, maternity case, bathed mother and babe, received ten cents for services; seventh, took temperature and pulse of convalescing typhoid, arranged to send patient to country; eighth, bath to mother and daughter, both ill with consumption, new case reported to health board; ninth, very sick babe, gave bath, furnished milk, and instructed mother, sent free doctor; tenth, man with locomotor ataxia, gave bath, made application to send patient to Home for Incurables.

Who, in hearing this, will deny that it was not a day full of satisfaction to the nurse, of practical benefit to the patients, and of infinite credit to the supporters of the work who make it possible that the relief may be given?

For the past ten years it has been clearly shown that the district visiting nurse work is the best means at the smallest cost of helping the conditions of the poor, sick or well. Hospitals do much good; but, after all, they offer but outside methods of education. It is by reaching the people in their own homes and teaching them to utilize, and make the best of what they have that lasting good may be accomplished.

In presenting the work of the charitable nursing service, I must be pardoned for seeming to cry my own wares; for this work perhaps appeals to its active workers as to no one else. The laity have only a vague idea of what the work is; for we have nothing tangible to show the public who contribute to its support,— no spacious hospitals surrounded with beautiful grounds that the patients never see; no beautifully furnished rooms in this or that institution, too handsome to be used by poor little John, the helpless paralytic from the little back basement room, whose only window looks on a garbage box; no white iron beds in the clean, well-furnished wards of a hospital, where poor Mrs. B. mayhap finds *temporary* care, only to

be removed again to her own filthy surroundings, physically helped, maybe, but not with the lasting good resulting, had the care been given her in her own environment. Hospitals may be God-sends to the people of certain classes; and, in answer to the question, Do they not give better and more adequate service? I answer, Yes, to the people who do not need *teaching;* but to the poor there is only one place to instruct and preach the law of health, and that is in their own surroundings. We are constantly crying that the home element is the basis of morality; and so this system of visiting nursing is making an effort to deal with the less fortunate *in* their own homes, and teaching the responsibility of one member of the family to the other, while giving practical lessons in cleanliness and care in their own surroundings. Who makes it possible that Mrs. B. who is ill may remain at home, to keep together her family of little ones, and that the father may still continue his day's labors? This system of visiting nursing. If this case should go to the hospital, the children to an institution, and the husband, mayhap, to a saloon, who is responsible for the wrong done, by even temporary dissolution of this family? I would not belittle hospitals. They are the greatest institutions of the day, but they do not and cannot give care to all cases. Consumption, cancer, rheumatism, paralysis, all need care; and yet there are not institutions enough for all these physical ailments. Who steps in to relieve the inadequacy? This same comparatively unknown visiting nurse, whose teaching helps the people to *demand* of their landlords better housing. And so, indirectly, the visiting nurses help to solve the tenement-house problem, by arousing the poor themselves to ask for better quarters, and thus *force* the landlords to build better living places.

The public will search long before it will find so large a return for the money which it invests as in helping to send into the destitute homes of any locality, 365 days in the year, a corps of trained nurses to give the same skilled care that the rich may provide for themselves. Many people say, Why not give your revenue to a hospital, and let them give the care? What institution gives nursing and medical care, surgical dressings, and medicine for the sum of not quite 30 cents for the year, for each case? Last year the income of the Chicago Association was not quite $17,000, and the cases cared for numbered 5,915. Seven-eighths of these cases would not have been taken in any hospitals, for the remainder there was no room.

Without the visiting nurses, practically all these people would have been without care in illness, if this alone were the only good resulting. The system is non-sectarian. Roman Catholic, Protestant, Jew, and Gentile, all are beneficiaries; and I may be pardoned when I say that I think we stand to the poor in their bodily ills as the splendid Salvation Army does to them in their spiritual ills. Sects and creeds do not limit their field, and they reach the people that many times the Church does not. So with the visiting nurses, they care for the cases hospitals will not admit; and they have no barriers of race or creed. "The work of the Visiting Nurse Association," says the Chicago *Chronicle*, "is a living band between poverty and good fortune, between humanity and thousands of its members who otherwise would be liable to add to the ever-increasing mass of worse than poverty in a great city. Its sole object is the free scientific nursing of the sick poor and their aid in recovering not only health, but courage, self-respect, and self-support. Thus it also constantly contributes to diminishing the calls upon charity in other directions."

The people who live on Easy Street have an obligation toward the sick poor of their city, living in homes of squalor, mayhap only a short ride from their door; not only perhaps from the humane standpoint, but in every avenue they open up to help people to better and more healthful living, they lessen to that extent the menace to their own dear ones. We urge every city to prove by actual demonstration the service rendered by these nurses. Try it for a year, and, if it does not give back double the effort made, then you will be the first society to have tried it and failed. The greatest commendation the work can possibly have is that on its list of adverse critics we have yet to find the complaint of a single person who *has been cared for*. The purpose is reached, then, when we have pleased the people for whose benefit we are organized.

Societies at Present Operating in America.

Albany, N.Y.— The work in Albany is done by the Albany Guild for the Care of the Sick Poor, and is the outgrowth of the Fruit and Flower Mission, which was organized in 1880.

It employs four nurses, and does much work among the class which renders small fees for the nurse's care. The nurse here may not respond to any calls excepting those sent to her from the physicians and by the president of the association. This method necessarily limits the field.

BALTIMORE, MD.— The work in Baltimore is known under the name of the Instructive Visiting Nurse Association. It began in January, 1896, with one nurse. At the beginning of the present year it has five.

The association is partially self-supporting: the deficit is made up by voluntary contributions. It is non-sectarian and neutral. Co-operates with the other charities of the city. From the first it has been a most successful organized society.

BOSTON, MASS.— Boston is the oldest of the Visiting Nurse Societies established in America: it was organized in 1886.

The fourteen nurses work in connection with the dispensary physicians connected with the Boston Dispensary, established in 1776.

The association is known as the Instructive District Nursing Association of Boston.

BROOKLYN, N.Y.— The visiting nurse work is operated in this city, and is known as the Red Cross Instruction and District Nursing Society, and is now a department of the Bureau of Associated Charities. Three nurses are employed who do the usual nursing work.

In addition to the work done under the auspices of the Bureau of Charities there is also a graduate nurse at the Pratt College Settlement, supported by a private individual.

BUFFALO, N.Y.— The District Nursing Association of Buffalo was organized in 1892, to provide free nursing among the sick poor and to carry on a diet kitchen and flower mission in connection therewith.

The association is strictly non-sectarian, receiving its support from the voluntary contributions of all denominations. There are now four nurses doing duty for the association.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.— The district nursing in this locality is under the direct supervision of the District Nursing Association of Boston. It is really a branch of that city's work.

CHARLESTON, S.C.— In this city is an organization known as the Ladies' Benevolent Society, whose constitution says "is formed for the relief of the sick only." It is probably the oldest of its kind in America, having just had its eighty-eighth anniversary. It is supported by voluntary contributions, fees, and legacies. It is undenominational.

CHICAGO, ILL.— The Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago was organized in 1890. Fifteen nurses are employed. It is non-sectarian, neutral, and exclusively a public charity, supported by voluntary contributions, fees, and legacies. Managed by a board of directors of thirty-two women. Co-operates with all the organized charities of the city. Gives only nursing and medical care and only such relief

as pertains to the sick. Paramount object, instruction to the people in sanitary laws and hygiene and the care of their own families in time of illness.

COLORADO SPRINGS, COL.— The work here is comparatively new, and the one nurse employed is under the supervision of the Associated Charities and paid by them.

COLUMBUS, OHIO.— The organization is known here as the Instructive District Nursing Association. It was organized in 1890, through the efforts of philanthropic citizens, and is now supported by voluntary contributions. Three nurses are now employed.

This organization secured its first nurses from the organization in Chicago. It has been most successful.

CONCORD, MASS.— The work at Concord was established in 1900, and employs one nurse. The largest part of the work is done in the families of those who can pay small sums for the service, though the association was started for the benefit of the destitute poor.

DAVENPORT, IA.— In connection with St. Luke's Hospital of this city is organized a department of district nursing. The pupils in the second year are sent out to care for the sick in their own homes under the supervision of the superintendent of nurses.

DENVER, COL.— In 1892 the Denver Flower Mission employed a visiting nurse to care for the sick poor. In 1900 this association merged into what is known as the Visiting Nurse Association and Flower Mission of Denver.

It is supported by voluntary contributions, fees, and legacies. Two nurses are employed. They also have in connection a complete medical and surgical staff. The charity organization of Denver contributes toward the fund.

DETROIT, MICH.— The Visiting Nurse Association of Detroit was organized in 1896. It is supported by the various guilds and church societies and voluntary contributions. It has in its employ at present three trained nurses. It has the hearty support of all the institutions of the city.

FALL RIVER, MASS.— In Fall River, Mass., the work is done under the auspices of the Union Hospital, which sends out one nurse who cares for as many cases as possible during the day.

FITCHBURG, MASS.— In Fitchburg, Mass., the work is known as the Instructive Home Nurse Association, and is a department of the charity organization known as the Fitchburg Benevolent Union. Employs two nurses and makes a specialty of its loan closets, the system of which could be profitably copied in all the other district nursing societies.

FORT WAYNE, IND.— The work is known in this city as the Visiting Nurse League. It is supported by various church circles and the contributions of the public. It employs two nurses, and works in connection with the Associated Charities.

GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.— The District Nurse Association in Grand Rapids is operated in connection with the charity organization of that city. Two nurses are employed who work entirely in connection with the Associated Charities. The fund is supplied by private individuals.

HAMPTON, VA.— A very successful association, organized since 1899, is district work done in connection with the Hampton Training School for Nurses connected with the Dixie Hospital.

This is the oldest training school for colored women in America, and the pupil nurses are sent to furnish nursing care to the sick poor in the town.

HARRISBURG, PA.— The Visiting Nurse Society of Harrisburg is neutral and non-sectarian, employs two nurses, and is supported by a private individual. It was formed in 1899, and has been most successful. The work is done by nurses formerly employed by the Chicago Association.

HARTFORD, CONN.— Hartford is perhaps the newest of the organized associations. It was started in February, 1901, and has one nurse.

KANSAS CITY, MO.— The work in Kansas City was begun in 1891, and is known as the Visiting Nurse Association of Kansas City. Two nurses do the work in this organization. It is supported by voluntary contributions of the public.

KEENE, N.H.— In Keene, N.H., the work is done by student nurses sent out from the city hospital.

LAWRENCE, MASS.— The work of the visiting nurse in this locality is supplied by the public nurses from the Lawrence Training School for Nurses.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.— The work was started in Los Angeles in 1899. One nurse is employed by the city,— the only place in America where it is done in this way. The plan might well be adopted elsewhere.

LYNN, MASS.— The district work in the homes of the poor was organized here in 1896, through an agreement between the Lynn Hospital and the Associated Charities, whereby the Associated Charities was to pay the Lynn Hospital for the service of a nurse in training. The nurse is changed once in two months. She reports at the office of the Associated Charities for her cases.

MALDEN, MASS.— One nurse has been employed here since 1899. She works in connection with the Industrial Aid Society. The salary is paid by this society.

MELROSE, MASS.— In Melrose the work is done by the pupil nurses of the Melrose Hospital.

MIDDLETOWN, CONN.— The work was organized here in 1901, and has one nurse employed. The work is going on most successfully.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.— The work here is done by two nurses employed by the Associated Charities. There is no distinct organization of the kind.

MT. KISCO, N.Y.— The work here is done by the Visiting Nurse Association known as the Ellen Wood Memorial District Association It was named in memory of Miss Wood, a Johns Hopkins nurse the Alumnæ Association of that school contributing toward the sup port. One nurse is employed.

NEWBURG, N.Y.— The work here was started in 1897 by the clergymen of the city, and is known as the Visiting Nurse Society of Newburg. The expenses are met by contributions from the various churches, by fees and legacies. They have one nurse, and she may only take cases sent to her by physicians of the city. The work is now on a permanent basis.

NEWPORT, R.I.— The work in Newport is carried on under the auspices of the Newport Hospital, the pupil nurses in training in the second year being sent out to care for patients in their own homes who are unable to pay for the service. The plan has been operated successfully for a number of years.

NEWTON, MASS.— This association was organized in 1898. It acts under the direction of the physicians of the city of Newton, and is supported by voluntary contributions. Two nurses do the work.

NEW YORK CITY.— The ground is well covered in New York City, although the work is not done by any one organized society for this work. The Bureau of Associated Charities has six nurses working in connection with it. There are two branches of the Nurses' Settlement of from ten to twelve nurses; and others are engaged in the parishes of Grace, Trinity, St. Thomas, and others. The City Missionary Society, one of the oldest organizations in New York City for caring for the sick poor, has employed a band of trained women for many years. The field is a large one, and really should be covered by an organized society operating on a separate and distinct basis.

The work at the Nurses' Settlement, 265 Henry Street, is most complete in every detail, comprising the district nursing on the upper and lower east side, with social work.

NORFOLK, VA.— The work here is operated under the direction of the Norfolk Union of King's Daughters. Two nurses are employed, part of one nurse's time being used as a friendly visitor for the united charities. There is great need for this work in that locality.

OAKLAND, CAL.— The work is done by the pupil nurses sent out from the Oakland Hospital. There is not as great need in this locality as is found in many others. It was established in 1894.

OMAHA, NEB.— The work was organized in Omaha in 1897 with one nurse in charge. It is supported by voluntary contributions, and is indorsed by leading physicians of the city. It is modelled, both in the constitution and the detail work, upon the Chicago plan.

ORANGE, N.J.— The work in Orange, N.J., is carried on by the nurses of the Orange Hospital Training School, who live at the Nurses' Settlement in the district occupied largely by the mill hands. It is supported by voluntary contributions.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.— The Visiting Nurses' Society was organized here in 1875, almost simultaneously with that of Boston. It employs eight graduate nurses and several undergraduates. It is supported entirely by voluntary contributions. It is non-sectarian, and its constitution says that "the object of this society is to give to the poor and to those of moderate means the best home nursing possible under existing circumstances."

PLAINFIELD, N.J.— The work was established here several years since under the auspices of the City Union of the King's Daughters. The fund is supplied entirely by this organization. The nurse herself is really a part of the Associated Charities.

PROCTOR, VT.— The Proctor Hospital Training School takes care of the poor in their own homes by sending out a pupil nurse when in her second year of training.

ROCHESTER, N.Y.— The Rochester City Hospital furnishes through its outdoor relief department a district nurse who cares for all cases who are too poor and who are unable to leave their families to go to the hospital. The Homœopathic Hospital has a special endowment for the support of two visiting nurses. The ground is well covered in Rochester, though there is a field for a regular organization.

SALEM, MASS.— The work is done here in connection with the Associated Charities, but is supported by private individuals. One nurse is employed.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.— In 1897 the Fruit and Flower Mission of San Francisco employed a visiting nurse to care for the sick poor. In the following year, in 1898, it was transferred to the Associated Charities; and a second nurse was added to the work. The support comes from private individuals, who furnish the money for this purpose.

They receive most of their calls from the Associated Charities. In addition to these nurses there are several others working in connection with the various parishes. The sick poor are well cared for in San Francisco.

SCRANTON, PA.— The Associated Charities in this city employ a nurse in connection with their work. The expenses are met by that organization.

ST. LOUIS, MO.— The sick in their own homes are cared for here by the nurse employed in connection with the Visiting Nurse Department of the St. Louis Provident Association.

It was formed in 1895, and is supported by the regular Associated Charities.

ST. PAUL, MINN.— One visiting nurse is employed here by the Bethel Settlement. The field in St. Paul is covered very much in the same way as that in New York. There is no regularly authorized system under one head, but the sick poor are well cared for.

SYRACUSE, N.Y.— The society here is an organized one, known as the Visiting Nurse Association of Syracuse. It was organized in 1896, and is supported by private individuals and public contributions. Two nurses cover the field.

WALTHAM, MASS.— The district nursing is done here by the pupil nurses of the Waltham Training School. This system, now operated in many localities, is indebted to Dr. A. Worcester for its origin. It was the first time in this country that the sick poor had been cared for in their own homes. The work is most successfully carried on, and serves two purposes, that of giving care to the people who cannot afford to pay for the service, and also giving experience to young women in training which they perhaps could not get under the roof of the hospital.

WASHINGTON, D.C.— The Instructive Visiting Nurse Society was organized in Washington in 1900. It now employs five nurses, and is supported by the voluntary contributions of the public.

WINCHESTER, MASS.— The work was organized here in 1899. Two nurses are employed, who do much charity work, but are especially serviceable to the small wage-earner, who pays a fee for care received. The support is from voluntary contributions.

WORCESTER, MASS.— The work is done here by two nurses, supported by voluntary contributions, and who work in connection with the Associated Charities.

This paper would not be complete without a mention of the Victoria Order of Nurses, founded in Canada by the Countess of Aberdeen.

The order is for the benefit of the sick poor, the same as all other district nursing societies, and is supported by voluntary contributions. Its work is larger and covers a greater field than any of the organizations of its kind in the States. In Montreal there is also a district nurse sent out in connection with the diet dispensary.

In Toronto the Nursing at Home Mission does the same sort of work as is covered by the organized societies in the States. It also is supported by the voluntary contributions of the public.

THE ALMSHOUSE HOSPITAL.

BY MRS. ALICE N. LINCOLN, BOSTON.

Through the courtesy of the chairman of our committee I have been requested to present the subject of the Development of the Almshouse Hospital. What I have to say can be very briefly summed up in the statement that, in my judgment, there should be no difference between an almshouse hospital and a general hospital. I would like, with your permission, to give my reasons for holding this belief.

More than twelve years ago, when my interest was first directed to the public institutions of Boston, I found that there was, in connection with these institutions, decided need of improvement in the almshouse hospital, which was devoid of many of the appliances and comforts which are considered essential in good institutions. The matter was thus brought to my attention ; and during all these years I have watched very closely the change in the Boston Almshouse and Hospital, by which the *hospital* feature of this department of the city of Boston has become more important than the

almshouse proper. It is of this change and development that I wish to speak.

There seems to be no reason why an almshouse hospital should not be looked upon as the chronic department of any great city hospital. The diseases which are cared for there could well be classed as chronic diseases; and, although some acute cases are sent to an almshouse hospital, the majority of the cases sent there must, of necessity, be those of long-standing illness, consequent upon age and impaired health or accident. The city of Boston has provided a hospital, known as the South Department of the Boston City Hospital, for the treatment of contagious diseases. There is no adequate reason, it seems to me, why the city should not also maintain a hospital for the treatment of chronic cases of disease. Such a hospital it is our aim to establish and maintain at Long Island. The Boston City Hospital is an institution of which we may justly be proud. There is no reason, so far as I can see, why the Almshouse Hospital should not also be made an institution to which the city can look with satisfaction, and which may be made valuable to the medical schools by reason of good clinics conducted there.

England has been more in advance than we in coming to the knowledge that an almshouse hospital is intended for the sick who require hospital care; and that besides the humanity which better care and good nursing mean there should also be considered the more economical method of helping the community, for surely it is better economy to restore a person to health, if possible, than to maintain him as an inmate of an institution for months or years.

Florence Nightingale, in her noble introduction to the Life of Agnes Jones, points out in vivid words the fact that a sick poor person is no different from any other sick person, and requires the same tender care, the same wise treatment. Miss Nightingale's influence was so great, and her intelligence so keen that her views in regard to almshouse nursing prevailed in England at a very early date, and it was a great step toward a needed reform when Agnes Jones was placed in charge of the Liverpool Workhouse with its population of over 1,200 inmates and a corps of over 50 nurses and probationers. A brief record of her useful life should be read by every one interested in the subject of almshouse nursing. It is enough to say here that after three years spent in most arduous work, she succumbed to an attack of typhus fever, which — in consequence

of the strain under which she had been laboring for a number of years — found her a ready victim. In these days more care would be taken to prolong so valuable a human life by making the work easier, and endeavoring to divide duties which were too extensive for any one superintendent, no matter how zealous, to fulfil.

The question is often raised whether it is desirable to have a training school for nurses in connection with an almshouse hospital. To me there is but one answer to this question,— that it is decidedly of benefit to a hospital that such a training school should be established, provided the institution is large enough to afford practice to the nurses. At Long Island we have at present 250 beds; and a new wing to the hospital is shortly to be opened, in which 59 additional beds will be furnished. To care for the present number of patients, we employ 36 pupil nurses and 5 head nurses, in addition to the superintendent, and night superintendent of nurses. The course is a two years' one, and the nurses who go out from the Long Island Training School have been remarkably successful in finding positions in institutions elsewhere. Some also have entered the field of private nursing. The experience gained in an almshouse hospital, where many of the cases are chronic and of long duration, seems to me to fit a nurse admirably for the kind of cases she will often meet in private practice, where, although many cases are acute, there will always be a certain number that are chronic, and where the services of a good nurse are required. The necessity for trained nursing in acute cases of illness is probably greater, but certainly the nurses in the Long Island Hospital have shown that even cases of protracted illness and chronic suffering enlist their best sympathy and care.

I wish to bring forward a stronger plea for the reasons for asking that there should be no distinction between an almshouse hospital and a general hospital. Let us take a familiar instance. A woman with compound fracture of the hip is cared for in the Boston City Hospital until it is found that her case is incurable. Then she is sent to the Long Island Hospital. Is there any reason why, in changing from one institution to the other, the patient should notice a difference in food, care, cleanliness? It seems to me there should be no difference between a hospital where she is first treated for an accident and a hospital where, because of the accident, she is to end her days. The suffering of a cancer patient increases as the disease

progresses. There is no reason why, because this disease is found incurable, a patient suffering from it should be sent to an almshouse hospital to die, and should find that while there she has less comfort, less care, less treatment, than she would have had in a general hospital. At present, owing to the fact that there is no municipal hospital for consumptives in Boston, very many cases of tuberculosis are sent to the Long Island Hospital. Should not these cases receive the same care that they would in a general hospital? I can see no room for any argument on the other side of this question. It is true that the expenses of the Long Island Hospital are not so great as those of the Boston City Hospital, because at the City Hospital there are many cases of acute illness and surgical cases, requiring a greater number of attendants and different food and treatment. The per capita cost of the Boston City Hospital per week is, according to its latest report, $13.47, while that of the Almshouse Hospital on Long Island is only $4.19. I think you will admit that the per capita cost of the Long Island Hospital is low; and yet it is not too much to say that for this modest sum the patients receive care, treatment, and comfort which are on the average of those afforded by a good general hospital. Much of the excellence of the hospital is due to the untiring devotion of the members of the Visiting Medical Staff. Their interest and regular attendance have done more to raise the grade of the hospital than any one factor. Every member of the staff believes in making the hospital as good a hospital as is possible, in justice to the citizens who maintain it and the patients who occupy it. There are eleven members of the visiting staff, including two surgeons and various specialists. The resident staff of the hospital consists of the superintendent of the Boston Almshouse and Hospital (who is a physician and a member of the visiting staff), two resident medical officers, and four internes. It will thus be seen that the hospital is equipped with competent medical service, and a number of minor and a few major operations are performed there. One indisputable proof of the improvement in the Long Island Hospital is to be found in the fact that persons from outside are much more ready to send patients there than formerly. We are assured of this, not only by physicians, but by statisticians who keep accurate records of the institution. It is a pleasant thought that the stigma of pauperism need not necessarily attach to the hospital, but that it can be looked upon, more or less, as the chronic hospital of

the city of Boston. It has several times been suggested that the hospital department should be separated from the almshouse department; and indeed, in all essential points, it is already distinct. The building is separate, the accounts are kept separately, and in every way the hospital has an individuality of its own apart from the main institution.

This development of the Almshouse Hospital in Boston I have dwelt upon at length because it is an institution with which I am familiar, having been for five years a member of the board of trustees. I wish, however, to speak also of the excellence of the Birmingham Infirmary, where almshouse cases are treated (though not exclusively) and where the standard of nursing is remarkably high. This institution, built upon the pavilion plan, and superintended equally by a matron and master, each having separate and distinct duties, is a model of its kind, possibly because of its good construction and management, but also because, in the superintendent of nurses, the managers have found a remarkable woman. The care and attention given to the patients is equal to that in any well-equipped hospital that I have ever seen. The idea does not seem to prevail in Birmingham that a hospital receiving almshouse cases should be in any respect different from a general hospital. This is the plea which I wish to enter,— that the sick poor, no matter where they may be found, should receive the same care as sick persons elsewhere. They need just the same nursing, they need the same nourishing food to restore them to health, they need the same cleanliness and care. It is better for them to have it, it is better for the community to give it, and it is an education for the nurses in any hospital to realize that the standard cannot be too high. *It is the duty of the community to care for the dependent sick.* I do not know how others feel upon this subject, but it is borne in upon me very strongly that there is no reason why an almshouse hospital should not be as well planned, as well built, as well ventilated, as well managed, as any other hospital. As I stated in the beginning, this is the burden of my plea. It might seem from my point of view as if no one could fail to agree with this proposition, but I have heard arguments brought forward to prove that an almshouse hospital need not be as good as other hospitals. I have heard it stated by a leading physician, when our own almshouse hospital was unworthy of the name, that "it was good

enough for the purpose for which it was intended." I feel that it is a great opportunity to come here to bear my testimony to the firm belief that is in me, that an almshouse hospital cannot be too good; that the citizens who pay for it can better afford to maintain it at a high standard of excellence than they can afford to allow the sick to linger uncured or uncared for or not cared for as they should be cared for by a great city. I am aware that there are many points in which the hospital at Long Island could be improved. No one who has charge of an institution can ever feel that it has reached the point of excellence where no growth is possible, but certainly it is a benefit to any hospital to have the decided interest, and more or less authority, of a visiting staff of physicians; certainly it is a benefit to any hospital to have it known that the trustees who have charge of it desire a high rather than a low standard; certainly it is a benefit to any hospital to have in connection with it a pathological department where students can be made to feel that disease is to be studied scientifically. All these things we struggle to secure in the Long Island Hospital. During the past year 120 autopsies were conducted there successfully. Exclusive of the special specimens in connection with contagious disease, which are sent to the Harvard Medical School by the Boston City Hospital, the Long Island Hospital has furnished one-half of the material provided in this school for students. This record alone would show what excellent work is being done by the Pathological Department at Long Island.

I will ask your pardon if I have seemed to speak too exclusively of the one institution with which I am familiar. I have intended to speak of it as a type, not of what a model almshouse hospital should be, but of what an almshouse hospital may eventually become, if the right interest in it is felt by the municipality to which it belongs, by the superintendent and officers who administer it, by the physicians who visit it, and by the trustees who have it in charge.

I should be very glad to hear any argument which may be brought forward against the development of an almshouse hospital; but I could hardly be expected to believe this argument, because for nearly ten years it has been a source of deep interest and satisfaction to me to watch the steady growth of the special institution of which I am a representative, and to whose progress many different causes have contributed.

VIII.

Tuberculosis.

WHAT SHALL WE DO WITH THE CONSUMPTIVE POOR?

BY S. A. KNOPF, M.D., NEW YORK.

In an audience of charity workers, largely composed of laymen, it goes without saying that I shall not attempt to answer this question from a purely medical point of view. What we will try to learn here to-day, what we are anxious to know, is, above all, how we can help in the solution of the tuberculosis problem in its sociological aspect. Yet it seems to me essential that those of us who labor not only with tuberculous patients, but also with their friends and relatives, and the large portion of the community whose sympathy we desire to enlist in our cause, should know the true status of a consumptive. We must have a concise, correct, and just idea of what kind of a malady pulmonary tuberculosis, or consumption, really is, in order to combat it successfully as a social disease; that is to say, a disease of the masses. Permit me, therefore, to summarize to you our present knowledge in this respect, and to state the basis on which a trained and scientific charity organization should work.

Tuberculosis is only in the rarest instances transmitted from parent to child. When an infant becomes tuberculous, it is usually the result of an infection after birth from a careless or ignorant tuberculous mother or other consumptive adult. The disposition to tuberculosis can of course be inherited as well as acquired.

We now know that tuberculosis, especially in its pulmonary form, is an infectious and *communicable* disease. I lay stress upon the word "communicable"; for I do not classify pulmonary tuberculosis

with the dangerous contagious diseases, and I shall give you briefly my reasons for not doing so. It is my firm conviction, based on the experiences and experiments of our greatest European and American scientists, such as Koch, Straus, Grancher, Prudden, Biggs, and others, and on a somewhat extensive experience of my own, that tuberculosis is not a dangerous contagious disease, but only a communicable one. To be in contact with a tuberculous individual who takes care of his expectoration or other secretions which may contain bacilli is not dangerous. In sanatoria for consumptives, where the precautions concerning the sputum are most strictly adhered to, one is, perhaps, safer from contracting tuberculosis than anywhere else. The great danger from infection lies in the indiscriminate deposit of sputum containing the bacilli, which, when dry and pulverized, may be inhaled by susceptible individuals, and then cause the disease to be developed. The communication of the germ of the disease is, however, less obscure to us in its process, and far more easily guarded against, than the contagion arising from such maladies as diphtheria, scarlet fever, or small-pox. What has just been said concerning the absolute security from infection in a well-kept sanatorium cannot very well be said of a small-pox hospital, no matter how well directed the hygienic precautions may be. Against the danger from contracting small-pox we have thus far no other means than preventive vaccination, and, in case of an outbreak of the disease, the most rigid isolation. It is entirely different with tuberculosis. The simple contact of a small-pox patient may suffice to convey the disease. This is never possible with a consumptive, even should he be careless or unclean. To the average individual a prolonged exposure is necessary to the transmission of the disease. Herein lies the difference between communicable and contagious.

If pulmonary tuberculosis should be a dangerous contagious disease, as the authorities in the United States Marine Hospital Service would wish us to consider it, you scientific charity workers would be powerless to do anything toward the solution of the problem, which is as much a social as it is a medical one. You would not dare to enter the homes of these unfortunate ones to bring them comfort, consolation, and relief. From the admirable papers which you have heard from Dr. George F. Kean, of Providence, R.I., and from Dr. Lyle, of Cincinnati, at a previous meeting of this conference, and from the articles of other authors on the subject which have from

time to time appeared in the official organ *Charities*, edited by Dr. Edward T. Devine, of New York, you will have learned why tuberculosis should also be considered a decidedly preventable and, in many instances, absolutely curable disease. It is now, also, almost universally known to the medical profession as well as to many of the laity that tuberculosis in its pulmonary form can be cured in nearly all climates where the extremes of temperature are not too pronounced and where the air is relatively pure and fresh. In other words, it is not always necessary for a consumptive patient to travel long distances and seek special climatic conditions. In most instances he has a chance of getting well even in his home climate. The sooner the patient puts himself under the care of a competent physician, the greater are his chances of recovery. The well-trained physician is the most competent person to guide the patient in the means to prevent reinfection of himself or the infection of his fellow-men. The most modern and most successful methods of treating consumption consist solely and exclusively in the scientific and judicious use of fresh air, sunshine, water, abundant and good food, and the help of certain medicinal substances when the just-mentioned hygienic and dietetic means do not suffice in themselves to combat the disease. The thorough and constant supervision of the pulmonary invalid, the immediate intervention when new symptoms manifest themselves or old ones become aggravated or do not disappear rapidly enough, the prescription of proper food and drink, can only be had at the hands of the thoroughly trained physician, in the patient's home, or in a well-equipped sanatorium specially constructed for that purpose.

In how many cases which come under your observation can you provide the most modern and most successful methods of treating consumption? From the experience I have had myself as a medical worker among the consumptive poor, I should venture to say that you come in contact with three classes of consumptives; and each class, to my mind at least, needs your assistance as urgently as the others. Of these three classes, the first are the absolutely poor with or without medical attendance who come to you for help. The second class are those absolutely poor and consumptive whom you meet by chance and whose material need you discover at a glance. Lastly, those who cannot be called absolutely poor, who earn enough from day to day so as not to be in want, but who are too

proud to appeal to you when ill and would rather labor until they are carried home exhausted and put to bed, which they probably never leave again.

What shall we do with the first class, the absolutely poor, who live in the crowded, unclean, badly lighted, and badly ventilated tenement houses? What is the friendly visitor to do when he comes face to face with a family in want, of which the father, mother, or one of the children who may be the bread-winner is ill in bed with consumption?

If there are in the city among whose poor you work enough hospital facilities, the first thing you would think of would be the removal of the sufferer to the nearest consumptives' hospital, removal from the sad, dark, and dreary surroundings in which the poor consumptive constitutes a permanent centre of infection and where he has no possible chance of improvement, much less of cure. Your next duty would then be to inform the sanitary authorities that they should disinfect and renovate the rooms occupied by this family. And your third duty would probably be to provide them with food and clothing until such a time as the bread-winner shall return to them ready to take up again the support of the family. If he dies, the family will probably remain a burden to the community until the children become in turn bread-winners. With the second class of consumptives, with whom you have come in contact accidentally, but whose social and physical conditions are the same, you could not nor would you wish to act differently. Then comes the third class,— that is to say, the not absolutely poor,— who work until they can work no longer. This class has always seemed to me particularly pathetic, just as interesting and just as much in need as the one which applies directly for help to the Bureau of Charities.

It has been my privilege to see among this class of patients men and women who were veritable heroes. An example is the honest laborer who has had the misfortune to become tuberculous and finally phthisical, who at the onset of the disease had sought the advice of the physician. Presuming that a correct diagnosis had been made, the doctor most likely prescribed, with some tonic and cod-liver oil, also a few weeks of rest. This treatment, under the most favorable circumstances, meant the sacrifice of a good part of the savings of better days. After a while the patient, seemingly improved, resumed his former occupation; but the improvement was

not lasting. He was again and again obliged to take a rest. The intervals between the periods of work became longer and longer. There were no more visits to the doctor. Occasionally the nearest dispensary was visited; but, owing to the steady decrease of the little reserve fund, there must not only be economy in regard to the physician's visits, but also in the diet. Private as well as dispensary physicians urged that the food should be rich and abundant, and that the prescribed tonic was for the purpose of increasing the appetite.

Pardon here a little digression; for an experience which I had in younger days, when engaged as a dispensary physician, seems important enough to be related on this occasion. This experience was a great lesson to me. I have borne it in mind ever since; and I wish I could impress it upon philanthropists who create dispensaries,— impress it upon physicians and charity workers alike. A young man who had been out of employment for some time, owing to a moderately advanced case of tuberculosis, came to me for advice. I examined him, took his weight, and found him in a fairly favorable condition. I advised the regular treatment, and ordered an additional tonic, so as to increase his appetite. He returned to the dispensary after about ten days, when he did not look quite as well. He was again put on the scales, and I found that he had lost nearly four pounds in weight. My first question was: "How did the tonic act? Has it not increased your appetite?" The answer was: "Yes, it has, indeed. My appetite has been increased, but I have virtually no means to gratify it. I have lived on bread and crackers and a little milk, and must continue to do so, in order to pay my rent." When prescribing that tonic in order to increase the appetite of the young man, it never entered my mind to also ask him whether he would be able to gratify the appetite which I hoped to increase.

A dispensary for the consumptive poor — no matter how elegantly built, how hygienically constructed, no matter how skilled the medical staff nor how abundant the supply of medicine — becomes a farce if there is not attached to it a system whereby the consumptive without means can be provided with food. If there is ever an occasion for co-operation between the medical profession and organized and scientific charity, it is in the perfect working of a tuberculosis dispensary. The charity organizations could investigate the cases which apply at the dispensaries, and determine whether there was

an abuse or the greatest need of charity. They could be helpful in providing food, when it was evident to them that the patient had no means to do so himself; and then even the dispensary treatment might prove a success in ambulant tuberculous cases.

The importance of the work done by special tuberculosis dispensaries has been fully recognized in France and Germany, where a number of such institutions are in operation. Only very recently two ladies donated 800,000 francs to the city of Paris for a municipal dispensary for the treatment of tuberculous patients.

Let us return to our friend, the honest laborer. His life story is soon finished. He has lingered for a little while, hopeless, helpless, until the end came. He had to die a far too early death, not because his disease was an incurable one, but for the reason that an early, timely, and constant treatment was not within his reach. Concerning this class of consumptives I have said that your first impulse would be to remove the patient to a special hospital or sanatorium. In a paper on "The Present Aspect of the Tuberculosis Problem in the United States," which I prepared for the meeting of the American Medical Association, which will convene this month at Saratoga, I give the result of careful inquiry into the provisions which the states and the principal cities of this country have made for their consumptive poor. I will not burden this paper with statistics, but will simply summarize. Thus far, out of the forty-eight states and territories which have reported to me, only Massachusetts has a state sanatorium in operation; but in the following nine states — namely, Connecticut, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, Wisconsin — the establishment of state sanatoria for the consumptive poor is under consideration, and in several states some are already in process of construction. Maryland has a state hospital for the consumptive poor, Minnesota has a hospital for tuberculous prisoners, Mississippi has a hospital for the tuberculous insane, and Texas has an agricultural colony for tuberculous prisoners. Only four cities (Cincinnati, Boston, New York, and Buffalo) have special institutions provided by municipal funds.

New York City has at the utmost 1,000 beds to accommodate 10,000 absolutely poor consumptives and 10,000 consumptives of moderate means. You will agree with me when I say that few states and few cities are at all better off than we are in New York. There is no disease in which the physician is so powerless to benefit his patient as

in consumption among the poor; and there is no disease where the physician can accomplish more by proper hygiene, abundance of food, and good nursing than in this very disease in the home of the well-to-do.

What could not you scientific and trained charity workers and we medical men accomplish, had we the means at our command? And these means are nothing more nor less than a sufficient number of well-equipped special hospitals and sanatoria for the consumptive poor.

Whatever may be our work in preventing the development of tuberculosis, for the time being we must exert all our influence with the municipalities, statesmen, and philanthropists to impress upon them the urgent necessity of a sufficient number of sanatoria in which to place immediately all cases of consumption which either constitute a source of infection to their kin and neighbors or who cannot receive in their homes the proper treatment which their condition demands.

All those cases which we classified under numbers one and two are in such urgent need of better shelter and treatment that we must not even lose time in investigating the reasons for the evident extreme poverty. That excellent maxim of modern charity work, "Help the poor to help themselves," cannot find immediate application in these cases. Widely different is, however, your work, when directed toward preventing tuberculosis among the poor. In New York the charity organizations have long since discovered that the families most frequently reported destitute and principally afflicted with tuberculosis were the ones living in the worst and most crowded tenement houses, under the most deplorable hygienic conditions. The New York Charities Organization, the New York Society for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, the United Hebrew Charities Organization, and others joined to bring about the enactment of a tenement-house law which even with its present modification brings terror to greedy landlords, sweat-shop bosses, unscrupulous contractors and speculators. This new tenement-house law resulted in the creation of the office of a permanent tenement-house commissioner. Through the enactment of wise and restricted legislation the erection of unsanitary tenements is no longer possible. Buildings which are unfit for habitation are condemned, and old tenement houses must be improved and properly managed. Indirectly, this tenement-house reform move-

ment stimulated the building of model tenement houses as a commercial enterprise.

To my friends, the charity workers of the city of New York, who have brought about this tenement-house reform, I gladly concede the honor of having accomplished one of the best, most practical, and most important portions of the work in the combat of tuberculosis as a disease of the masses. It is here, Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, where we must commence with our work in preventing further development of pulmonary tuberculosis; for, no matter how many sanatoria and special hospitals we may have, so long as there are unsanitary, filthy, dark, and dreary tenement houses, so long will consumption prevail among their inhabitants. Without the better housing of the poor the tuberculosis problem will never be solved.

Thus, after pleading for sanatoria and special consumptive hospitals, let it be our next duty to urge upon our philanthropists to stop for a little while building libraries, colleges, and churches, and build model tenement houses in their stead. Let them give to the laboring man an opportunity to enjoy, for a moderate price, the comfort of a cheery, healthful home. They will thus render happy many a family and indirectly help prevent the dissemination of tuberculosis more, perhaps, than by any other means. By giving to the laborer for a moderate price a comfortable home the philanthropist does not pauperize the honest workingman, but makes of him a more dignified and, probably, also more sober citizen.

No one knows, perhaps, better than you, visitors of the poor and workers among the unfortunate, how the untidy, dreary, badly ventilated, and badly lighted rooms in the crowded tenements, stuffy and close in summer, insufficiently heated and cheerless in winter, often drive the laborer, after a day's hard work, into the brightly lighted and seemingly cheerful and attractive liquor saloon. As is well known, alcoholism is a strong predisposing factor to tuberculosis. Another is mal-nutrition. Here you know again as well as I do that it is just as often, and perhaps more frequently, the ignorance of the housewife among the poor, who does not know the art of choosing and preparing the right kind of food, which so often causes discontent. Education in housekeeping of factory and shop-girls before they marry, seems to me the only remedy to counteract this evil. I say again, give to the laboring man a clean, cheerful home, be it ever so modest, and an intelligent housewife who can prepare good and

appetizing meals, and the rumshop will have less temptation for him.

And now let us see whether it is not possible without pauperizing the poor to solve the problem. It is known to many of you that there exists in the German empire a law whereby every laborer and employee earning less than 800 marks per year must be insured against accident, old age, and disease (including tuberculosis). These state invalidity and insurance companies, realizing that it is to their advantage to treat the tuberculous cases as early as possible, instruct their physicians to exercise the greatest care in the detection of early tuberculosis; and, when such case is discovered, he is sent immediately to one of the existing sanatoria. Often in less than four months' treatment these cases are discharged as cured. The insurance companies, thus seeing the advantage of the early treatment, particularly in sanatoria, themselves created such institutions. Independent mutual benefit organizations imitated the work of the state insurance companies, and the result is that there exist now in Germany nearly one hundred sanatoria, accommodating about 9,000 patients, a small number of them for the absolutely poor, but a large majority for patients who by right of their insurance policies or membership in mutual benefit associations must be considered paying patients. How would it be if one of our most thickly populated states, after having created a number of sanatoria, would try the experiment of a state tuberculosis insurance company? How many families, even of the classes in fair circumstances, but in which tuberculosis is dreaded on account of the disease having been the cause of the death of some of their members, would not gladly avail themselves of this opportunity especially since the existing life insurance companies refuse applicants with a family history of tuberculosis? This opportunity offered by the state would mean giving to their children the certainty of being offered the best possible chance of recovery, should they be taken down with the family disease. No matter at what age, so long as the individual remains insured, there would be the state sanatorium to receive and treat him. A payment of fifty cents a month from the birth of the child would give to the state insurance companies after fifteen years, with the accrued interest, a capital of nearly $150. By paying the aggregate amount up to the date of application, any predisposed individual might be insured at any time, and such an institution be called into life at once.

It is well known that the greatest chance of a predisposed individual being taken sick is between the age of puberty and thirty. The chances of the disease becoming healed without ever having been discovered are at least between 20 and 25 per cent.; that is to say, that, out of every hundred autopsies made on people having died accidentally or of diseases other than tuberculosis, twenty to twenty-five show evidences of healed tuberculous lesions (cicatrization or calcareous formation). The chances of this disease being cured in from six to nine months, if it is discovered at an early period, are at least 50 per cent.

It is not necessary to be an insurance expert to see that the state would hardly be a great financial loser by creating such an insurance institution. But the greatest benefit which would accrue to the state or commonwealth through such an enterprise would be the paving of the way toward a complete state or municipal control of tuberculosis among that portion of the population which, owing to its social conditions, could otherwise not be properly cared for, and would constitute forever an impediment to the thorough prophylaxis and possible eradication of the disease.

We have with us here to-day Mr. Frederick L. Hoffman, one of our most distinguished statisticians and life insurance experts, and he will probably tell us why private insurance companies are not willing to undertake such an enterprise.

We have thus far endeavored to answer the question, "What shall we do with the consumptive poor?" as it relates to the absolutely poor who appeal to you for help, those whom you meet by chance, and the not absolutely poor. For the ambulant cases who are up and about, doing a little work, we have pointed out the value of special tuberculosis dispensaries and how they should be managed in order to effect cures. There are two more classes of tuberculous patients who are of interest to the scientific charity worker. One is that large class of individuals who work, although afflicted with tuberculosis. They work in shops, factories, and stores; and they continue to work until they can work no longer, or until their disease becomes objectionable to their employers or fellow-workers. Yet I believe that the lives of the vast majority of these patients could be saved if they had an opportunity to change their occupation, if they were allowed to do outdoor work instead of being compelled to live a sedentary or indoor life. If some sort of agricultural colony could be established for pa-

tients suffering from the early stages of pulmonary tuberculosis, I am sure that many patients would not only be restored to perfect health, but such a colony could be made self-supporting, if not money-making. It goes, of course, without saying that such a colony must have a physician, who should not only watch over patients, but should also decide the amount and kind of work the patients should do. In Texas, where the first colony of tuberculous prisoners has been created and where they make farming and gardening the principal occupation of the colonists, the experiment resulted in the cure and improvement of a large number of prisoners and an actual surplus from the earnings of the colony. I wonder whether it would not be a wise and judicious procedure to inaugurate similar colonies, supported by either the state, municipality, or by philanthropically inclined private individuals, for the consumptive poor of large cities. As to the amount of good which could thus be accomplished, it is hardly necessary to say more. Such a colony might even be in connection with a sanatorium where the earlier cases are treated.

We come now to the last class of patients which should interest us. They are the thousands of children afflicted with some of the many forms of tuberculosis or strongly predisposed to consumption. You all have seen in your wanderings through the crowded streets of our tenement districts the many pale and emaciated children with evident scrofulous and tuberculous manifestations. It is an interesting but significant fact that, while tuberculosis in the adult is curable in many cases, in children the disease is twice as curable. In European seaside sanatoria from 50 to 75 per cent. of absolute cures are annually reported. Seacoast climate, good food, and bathing in the ocean seems to be almost the specific treatment for children suffering from tuberculosis or scrofulosis, the latter being only a milder form of the former. Is it not strange that we in this country, with our far-extending beautiful seacoasts, have virtually no such institutions, while France alone has (according to *La Tuberculose Infantile* of December, 1901) along its seacoasts no less than twenty-four sanatoria for tuberculous and scrofulous children, offering accommodation to 3,923 patients? All these sanatoria are provided with educational facilities, so that the children's intellectual development does not suffer. To place these little invalids in such institutions would be another answer to the question what to do with the consumptive poor, and to make propaganda for such school sanatoria for tuberculous and

scrofulous children must be as imperative to us as our pleas for the establishment of sanatoria for adults. The child of to-day is the man of to-morrow; and, the more children we cure from this disease now, the smaller number of consumptives we will have to take care of in the future. You all have heard often enough of the hygienic education patients received in sanatoria and the indirect benefit which thus accrues to the commonwealth from such institutions. Therefore, I need not say any more of the value of special institutions for all classes of tuberculous sufferers as means of prevention as well as of cure.

With your permission I will now summarize as briefly as possible the answer to the question, "What shall we do with the consumptive poor?" We must remove those suffering from tuberculosis in the second and more advanced stages of the disease to either special hospitals or sanatoria. We must try to get as many as possible of the incipient cases to submit themselves for treatment to special tuberculosis dispensaries, and from the frequenters of such dispensaries select, according to their condition, as many as can be accommodated for either the tuberculosis agricultural colony or a sanatorium for incipient cases. In the seaside school sanatoria, which should be numerous, we should place all tuberculous and scrofulous children and those strongly predisposed to consumption. Every charity organization society, which wishes to deal with the tuberculosis problem effectively, must engage a competent physician to examine not only the patient pointed out to him, but also all the other members of the family, and thus detect as far as possible all existing cases of tuberculosis. Many lives may thus be saved; and the physician, being at the same time a sanitarian, will give directions to the family to stop as far as possible the propagation of the disease.

To do such effectual work, you will need money, and a great deal of it; and the question is now where to get it. Even if the municipalities would be willing to help you,— and a great many are,— no city in this country, nor in any other, is able to cope alone with the tuberculosis problem. In Europe, royalty and the aristocracy of birth and finance have created hundreds of sanatoria; and these institutions have made their influence felt already in a marked reduction in the mortality from tuberculosis. We have no emperors, no kings, no aristocracy by birth in this country; and let us be

grateful for it. We have something better. We have an array of philanthropists whose generosity has never been equalled. According to Dr. Rossiter Johnson, $107,360,000 were given by American citizens for educational, religious, and general philanthropic institutions during the single year of 1901. All previous records have been outdone by this aggregate, the highest total for any previous year having been $62,750,000. It is a good augury that the first year of the twentieth century should have distinguished itself so remarkably. Our Carnegies, our Rockefellers, Vanderbilts, Morgans, Pearsons, our Helen Goulds, Phœbe Hearsts, Jane Stanfords, (Mrs.) Emmons Blaines, have given us fortunes for universities, colleges, and libraries, and have thereby made us and our children their lasting debtors.

It is but natural that those familiar with the needs of the consumptive poor in this country should look for help in solving this difficult tuberculosis problem to the large-hearted American men and women who make such noble use of their wealth. There are now, perhaps, plenty of libraries and colleges, and even general hospitals, everywhere. But there is a penury of good model tenement houses; there is a penury of public baths, which should for a moderate price be at the disposal of the people winter and summer and for some hours in the evening; there is a penury of decently kept places of amusement, open all the year, where the laborer and his family may spend a pleasant Sunday afternoon and partake of non-alcoholic drinks; there is a penury of hospital and sanatorium facilities for thousands of poor consumptives, who could be cured if only taken care of in time. Sanatoria for consumptive adults, as well as seaside sanatoria for scrofulous and tuberculous children, are a crying and urgent necessity for the majority of our large American cities. The more consumptives we cure, the more bread winners we create, and the fewer will become burdens to our communities. As the conditions are now in most of our cities and towns, the majority of consumptives are doomed to a certain and lingering death; and, if they are careless or ignorant of the necessary precautions, they will infect some of their own kin and neighbors.

When you call on your philanthropic friends to help you solve this great tuberculosis problem, describe to them the sufferings of mind and body of these people who must suffer and die, not because their disease is incurable, but because there is no place to cure them. I

am convinced that, if our generous and wealthy fellow-citizens could but see for themselves these conditions, instead of more new libraries, universities, and colleges, we would soon have better tenements, more playgrounds and parks for children, and an abundance of sanatoria and hospitals for our consumptive poor. Thus we would come nearer to the solution of the tuberculosis problem than we have ever been before in the United States.

In closing, I desire to thank you not only for the honor and privilege you have bestowed upon me by this invitation to address you, but also for the opportunity which has thus been given to me to meet so many of you noble men and women from all parts of the country, who are devoting your lives to the service of your fellowmen. We physicians may well be proud to be permitted to work with you. Charity and medicine are inseparable. It has been so from time immemorial, and I pray that it may forever be thus. The practice of charity and the practice of medicine must forever go hand in hand to relieve suffering mankind. As individual workers, however, we shall soon separate again, each returning to his respective field of labor. Permit me to wish you God-speed, not only in your labors among the consumptive poor, but in whatever work you may be engaged, be it in bringing comfort and relief to the needy, giving encouragement and consolation to the down-trodden, or showing to a brother or sister in despair the way to a happier, nobler, and better life. May success crown all your noble efforts!

WHAT SHALL WE DO WITH THE CONSUMPTIVES?

BY HENRY B. BAKER, M.D., LANSING, MICH.

Most subjects appear different from different points of view. Dr. Knopf speaks, I understand, from the standpoint of one interested especially in sanatoria, to which subject he has given very thorough study for several years. Although I also have studied that subject some, my daily experience during the past thirty years has been the study and actual work for the restriction of the dangerous communicable diseases. Therefore, on that phase of the subject I may be pre-

sumed to have learned something which should entitle me to have fixed opinions, based upon the knowledge thus gained.

Among sanitarians it is well understood that a disease which is known to be communicable, and its mode of spreading is known, is by reason of such knowledge a *preventable* disease. This is almost axiomatic. Is consumption such a disease? The answer to this last question is, emphatically, *yes*. It is now well known that consumption is contracted by taking into the body of the victim germs of the disease which have been derived from a pre-existing case. It is a tubercular disease, due to the bacillus tuberculosis, without which the toxin, which is the active agent in causing the disease, does not occur. The victims of the disease are, as a rule, at that age when, except for the poison of this disease, they should be in the prime of life. The most of them are between fifteen and forty-five years of age. (Diagram). Every one of them has or has had in his body the bacillus tuberculosis, without which experience he cannot be said to have consumption. How many contract consumption?

At a court trial in Detroit within a year past a prominent physician and expert bacteriologist testified, if I remember correctly, that to the best of his knowledge and belief the disease is contracted by at least 75 per cent. of all adult persons. A few years ago it was alleged that by examinations at the dead-houses in Philadelphia it was found that 60 per cent. of all dead had in their bodies evidence of having at a previous time had tubercular disease from which they had recovered sufficiently to die of some other disease. Leaving such statements out of the account, however, it is well known that until within recent years consumption has caused more deaths than any other disease whatever. Therefore, unless the fatality of the disease were much greater than that of any other disease, which it is not, it follows that more persons must have contracted consumption than contracted any other disease. This is the fact,— from the remote past up to a very recent time *consumption has been spread to a greater proportion of the people than has any other disease*. That completely answers the question as to the *extent* of its spread. It has been spread to more persons than has any other disease.

Is consumption contagious? The diseases generally accepted as *contagious* are scarlet fever, diphtheria, and small-pox. How are they spread? There is good evidence now available, some of which I

will present to you. First, let us consider how vaccinia is communicated. Contact with the *surface* of the body is not sufficient. Vaccine virus may be rubbed over the body; but, unless the surface is broken by scarification or otherwise, the vaccinia is not contracted. The same is apparently true of yellow fever, which is now known to be spread by a species of mosquito, *Stegomyia fasciata;* and the disease does not occur in a person unless the specific cause is introduced into the body through some break in the surface. The same is true of malarial fever, which is now known to be spread by another genus of mosquitoes, the *Anopheles.* Diphtheria may occur in any part of the body where it is inoculated or where the germs lodge in a broken surface; but, as a rule, it occurs only in the throat. Why in the throat? Because there is where, by reason of inhalation, most germs lodge, and because there, more frequently than in any other part of the body, the germs find a break in the surface. How do we know this? Because of the fact that this *inoculable* disease is actually present in the throat more frequently than any other part of the body, and because statistics prove to us that diphtheria is most prevalent at such times as the throat is known to be "raw," as it is called, when the throat irritants are most abundant in the atmosphere, when the atmosphere inhaled is cold, dry, and contains an excess of ozone. The same is true of scarlet fever, which usually begins as a sore throat. Small-pox observes the same laws: it is most prevalent after the throat irritants have been most active in the atmosphere. Consumption follows the same laws. All of the so-called *contagious* diseases *which go into the body by way of the throat and air passages* are most prevalent immediately after the greatest action of the throat irritants in our surrounding atmosphere, which all persons necessarily breathe.

From all the facts available, it is now plain that consumption is the most dangerous communicable disease with which sanitarians have to deal.

It is plain that its principal mode of spreading is practically the same as of some of the other dangerous communicable diseases usually called contagious; namely, by what goes out from the mouth of the consumptive. This is true of diphtheria, and probably also of scarlet fever. It is plain that consumption is generally contracted in practically the same way as most of the contagious or communicable diseases of this latitude are contracted; namely, by

the entrance into the mouth or air-passages of the specific germs of the disease. This is undoubtedly the mode of entrance of diphtheria, scarlet fever, and small-pox,— diseases which have been termed contagious. If they are contagious, then consumption is contagious. Not one of the common, so-called "contagious" diseases is usually contracted by simple contact of the unbroken surface of a human body with the surface of an infected human body. Therefore, the term "contagious," implying as it does the spread of disease by contact, should be obsolete. A much better term is the single word "communicable."

Of all communicable diseases, consumption is now the most dangerous. More people contract that disease than any other. Therefore, anything, any statement, or any influence which belittles the importance of restricting the spread of consumption does damage, in the most vital point, to the interests of the public health and safety.

What are the essentials for the restriction of this most dangerous disease?

Improper housing and improper feeding of the poor are important evils to be done away with, because they lead to discomfort and lowered vitality, and tend to spread disease. But, if the germs of tuberculosis were generally restricted, any amount of lowered vitality because of improper housing and improper food would not cause a single case of consumption.

The essentials for the restriction of consumption are: first, the general recognition of the truth that consumption is the most dangerous communicable disease. Knowledge of that fact is the power without which consumption cannot be restricted. It is lack of action because of ignorance of this great truth — that consumption is spread from infected persons — that kills off the improperly housed and improperly fed poor. It is ignorance of that great truth that kills off the rich by tubercular disease, in spite of proper housing and proper feeding.

It is the slow but gradual gaining of that precious knowledge by the common people, and action governed by that knowledge, that is reducing the mortality from consumption, as it is being reduced in Michigan. A very great decrease in the deaths from consumption has occurred following the campaign of education which has been carried on in Michigan, more especially since 1891.

In order to be most useful to the public, it is essential that this important knowledge shall be gained by and shall govern the action of every coughing consumptive, who otherwise is a constant source of danger. Therefore, the consumptive should be promptly put in possession of that knowledge. This first essential cannot be fulfilled by the public unless every case of well-developed consumption shall be reported to the health officer. Every case reported should be promptly informed how to avoid reinfection of the patient and spreading the disease.

Consumption in Michigan before and since the "Campaign of Education" for its Restriction.

The diagram, Plate No. 1105, exhibits graphically several facts, one of the most prominent of which is that a remarkable lessening of the death-rate from consumption has occurred in Michigan in

* In 1881, 1884 and 1888, the atmospheric temperature was very low in January, and in February it was slightly lower than the average February during the periods of years, 1864-80, 1864-83, and 1864-87, respectively. In 1895, it was low in January, and very low in February. In 1898, there was no such low temperature in the cold season of the year to which to attribute the apparently unusual mortality from consumption; probably the increase, compared with what might have been expected from the two preceding years, was due to the new law under which a much greater proportion of deaths which occurred were reported than had been in previous years.

[PLATE 1105]

recent years, commencing in 1891, in which year the reported death-rate dropped below 100 to each 100,000 inhabitants, which it had never done before, and since when it has never risen above that rate, except in the single year 1895; and in that year it did not equal the average death-rate as it was previous to 1891. It is noticeable that whereas previous to 1891 the general direction of the line representing the course of consumption was horizontal, along the line of about 110 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants, since 1891 the general direction has been downwards, at an angle of about 45 degrees.

If the decrease continues at the same rate, the disease will be so restricted as to be practically extinct, in this state, in the year 1950. It is hoped that the decrease will soon be at even a faster rate; and there is reason for that hope in the fact that the decrease has apparently resulted from the education of the people generally to a knowledge that consumption is a dangerous communicable disease, which may easily be restricted. It is, apparently, one more forcible illustration of the fact that "knowledge is power." In this instance, knowledge of the modes whereby consumption is usually spread, and of the ease with which its spread may be lessened, by the destruction or disinfection of all consumptive sputa, has apparently supplied a "power" which has caused an unprecedented reduction in the death-rate from consumption. The extent of the "campaign of education" which, in Michigan, began in 1880, and which took on an especially vigorous activity in 1891, can hardly be realized without a study of its history; but the apparent results of that educational movement are exceedingly plain to be seen from the diagram, Plate No. 1105, printed herewith.

Relative to the last three years represented in the diagram, nearly all deaths which occurred were reported, while previous to that time the deaths reported should be increased by a very considerable per cent. to make them equal the deaths which actually occurred. Therefore, the reduction in the death-rate from consumption in Michigan has undoubtedly been even greater than is apparent from a first glance at the diagram, Plate 1105.

Some of the reasons for believing that the decrease in the death-rate from consumption has been due to the popular education in the way the disease is usually spread, and in the way to restrict the disease, are: 1. The disease was under observation for many years before that knowledge became general, and it did not decrease. The decrease has been nearly coincident with the education, lagging behind somewhat at the outset, and gradually increasing later, as it would be expected to do if caused by the popular education. 2. Precisely similar decrease occurred in the death-rate from scarlet fever and from other diseases, coincident with systematic popular education in the ways those diseases are usually spread, and in the best measures for their restriction. 3. The decrease in the mortality from con-

sumption has apparently been greatest in those states where systematic popular education for its restriction has been most general and active. 4. There is no other known cause capable of producing such a gradually increasing effect as is shown to have occurred.

THE PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION.

BY GEORGE DOCK, M.D., OF ANN ARBOR, MICH.

In discussing this subject, I shall limit myself to some aspects of the problem that have impressed themselves on me in the course of my medical work. I need not say that the most important thing is to prevent the poor from having consumption, not only by warding off infection, but still more by raising resistance. This latter is included in all the efforts at better housing, better air and food, and better life on the whole.

Speaking with reference to the already consumptive poor, I should say: —

First. Enable him to ascertain his condition as accurately and as early as possible. This will necessitate a better training on the part of physicians than is now the rule. The diagnosis of consumption can be made at an earlier period in the disease than was possible not many years ago. But the proper methods for early recognition are not always applied, even when the patient presents himself in time. If the facts regarding consumption were more generally known, patients would appear earlier and treatment would be proportionately more successful.

Second. Give the patient, without technical details, such facts about consumption as will help him to make the best efforts for recovery. The belief that the condition is hopeless from the beginning still does much harm.

Third. Take no steps that, useless in other respects, may prevent the consumptive from getting the fullest possible measure of relief. Here I must express my thanks to Dr. Knopf for the admirable stand he has taken against the morbid fear of consumption; but, at the risk

of being misunderstood for a moment, I must state my own position. I believe that consumption is a dangerous disease, and that it is contagious. But all such terms are relative. It is not enough to know that a disease is contagious, and I cannot see that substituting the word "communicable" makes for greater clearness of ideas. The important thing is to discover in the case of each communicable disease how it may be communicated, and then how that may be avoided. Consumption is dangerous largely because it is so wide-spread. But, as one of the most conspicuous exponents of the contagion theory says, "The consumptive himself is almost harmless, and only becomes dangerous through bad habits." But bad habits can be overcome, at least in part. They can be overcome in such a case usually by education more readily than by ordinances. Placarding infected houses, however, does not promise anything good; while notification properly carried out, and disinfection of rooms or houses, do promise something. Notification, to be successful, requires not only accurate diagnostic ability on the part of the attending physician, but a degree of discretion on the part of the officials concerned that at present is not as common as might be desired. Medieval severity, also, is still not entirely absent from our hygienic regulations. One of the most aggravating instances that I know of, and one that tends to vitiate statistics, is a rule compelling the relatives of a tuberculous body to pay an extra tax if it is necessary to transport the corpse, the price of an air-tight coffin or an embalming, though the live consumptive may travel where he will, and from smoking-car to sleeper dispose of his bacilli where he pleases.

The education of the consumptive so that he habitually will act so as to prevent infecting himself and others can best be carried out in special hospitals, though any intelligent patient can easily and quickly be taught by his physician. I cordially assent to all that Dr. Knopf has said regarding the value and need of special institutions for the treatment of incipient cases. My *fourth* need for the consumptive poor, then, is the foundation of sanatoria where such cases may be treated. But since not all cases, even if recognized early, will recover completely, and since many cases will be discovered when too late for such treatment, we need,

Fifth, hospitals, or special wards in general hospitals, where consumptives in any stage may be received, either as candidates for sanatoria or colonies, or for the treatment of complications, including

the final stages, often so painful, and not rarely the most dangerous for friends or relatives when spent in dwellings.

Sixth. Not only must provision be made for the maintenance of the consumptive poor, but we must remember that, as regards tuberculosis, many are poor who, under ordinary conditions, would not be; and we must also consider the assistance of the families of such patients.

SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

BY DR. ALFRED MEYER, OF NEW YORK.

Unless we wish to include the old Spartan method of destroying the weaklings, there are only two methods open to us in dealing with the consumptive poor. The one would be simply to leave them to their fate, and the other to provide for them such care as would at least give them the ordinary fighting chance of recovery. To leave them to their fate is almost as unethical and abhorrent as to destroy them after the old Spartan fashion; and, as a matter of fact, every civilized community has adopted, at least in principle, the method of providing free care for their consumptive poor. The difficulty the world over has been twofold: first, that the number of cases to be cared for is so large that the provision for them has been pathetically inadequate, whether aid were extended from the public purse or by private philanthropy; and, second, that large numbers are cared for so late that they must needs be classed as hopeless when they present themselves for charitable relief.

The first difficulty, that of inadequate provision, has been growing rapidly less during the past few years. Under the stimulus of Koch's discovery of the tubercle bacillus, of a reduced mortality, international congresses, national and state associations for the combat of tuberculosis, an ever-increasing amount of interest and of help has been extended to this class of sufferers. In our own country the movement for state aid has spread with striking and encouraging rapidity through the Union, in spite of the twin bugaboos of paternalism and expense. In nearly every community a handful of pro-

fessional and lay workers have been able to keep up public interest in this large and many-sided question. In this connection it is of interest to note that in Massachusetts, where the first state sanatorium for consumptive poor in the United States was established only three and one-half years ago, the results have been so encouraging in the way of cure, improvement, and hygienic education of patients that there has already been a strong pressure on the legislature to duplicate the institution in another part of the state,— a striking contrast to the indifference of the public during the years of agitation that preceded the first appropriation of state funds for this purpose. The trustees — very wisely, I believe — have preferred to enlarge the existing institution from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and fifty patients, and by this action have exemplified for the hundredth time that pioneers in great movements are, in the end, the most conservative guides.

The second great difficulty, the advanced and hopeless stage at which many cases begin the active fight for recovery, is also growing less because of the earlier recognition of the disease by bacteriological methods and by serum diagnosis, the increased number of physicians who are skilled in this special field, the spread among the masses of the knowledge that in its early stages it is a most curable disease, and, lastly, because of the increasing number of sanatoria and the propaganda made for them by discharged patients.

I wish especially to accentuate the point that a large proportion of cures may be effected without expatriation, without exhausting journeys, without breaking up of families, without great travelling expense, without a complete isolation from those who are dear to us, without the brooding homesickness that comes with the rupture of domestic ties and banishment to distant lands and strangers. The corollary of this position is the one that finally each country may solve its own tuberculosis problem at home, this being true of even the smaller political units, such as states, counties, and large cities. To make this possible, the state, municipalities, and private philanthropy must vie with each other in the friendly rivalry of providing:—

a. Institutions beyond city limits for the incipient and presumably curable cases of tuberculosis, of which the Bedford Sanitarium of the Montefiore Home is a good example.

b. Institutions within the city limits for advanced and presumably

incurable cases, like the Blackwell's Island Institution in charge of Commissioner Folks, of the Department of Charities, New York City.

c. A series of separate wards in the city hospitals to act as clearing houses for cases of doubtful diagnosis and prognosis.

d. A system of financial aid to the families of adult patients to encourage early treatment.

Institutions of the first type, sanatoria, if possible, should be placed within forty or fifty miles of the great cities. Besides the general consideration in favor of such action, that cases may be cured there, the following should be remembered: —

First. Largest number of cases likely to come from there.

Second. Convenience of access for physicians and laymen who will be charged with the medical and administrative supervision.

Third. Nearness to base of supplies.

Fourth. Special force of the example for the whole anti-tuberculosis movement, when such institutions are placed near great cities.

Much may be said in favor of establishing farm gardens and dairies in connection with sanatoria for consumptive poor. They give healthful employment and diversion to the patients, they give them training in and taste for agricultural pursuits, and diminish the probability of their return to city tenements, with its attendant danger of relapse. In addition such employment helps maintenance of discipline among the usually large number of ambulant cases, and very materially assists an economical administration by supplying the institution with the products of the patients' own labor. The cases for such work must be carefully selected by the medical officer of the institution, as also the amount and character of the work assigned to each one, and the effect upon him watched. This method has been tried on a small scale at the Massachusetts State Sanatorium, but nowhere, I believe, on so large a scale as at the Bedford Sanitarium of the Montefiore Home, Westchester County, New York, with which I have the honor to be connected. Two years ago, when the institution accommodated only twenty-five patients, the following farm products were raised by the patients under the supervision of a skilled farmer: —

30 tons of hay, 160 barrels of potatoes, 160 barrels of apples, 70 bushels of onions, 350 bushels of corn, 1,000 heads of cabbage, 25

bushels of beets, 40 bushels of carrots, 100 bushels of turnips, and about twenty other kinds of vegetables.

Since the opening of the new buildings one year ago the number of patients has increased to nearly one hundred and fifty, the number capable of doing work has grown in proportion, and there has been a *considerable surplus* of farm products over and above the immediate needs of the institution. These facts appear to me to be of great importance, and worthy of a wide dissemination among those interested in both the economic and medical aspects of sanatorium management.

IX.

Destitute and Neglected Children.

THE PROGRESS OF STATE CARE OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY C. D. RANDALL, COLDWATER, MICH.

This is the story of the state: the commonwealth has reached down its strong hand and lifted up the helpless children of the poor. To-day, brighter than ever before, the sacred words stand out in letters of living light: "He shall . . . defend the children of the poor." This is the "children's age."

In 1871 Michigan assumed guardianship, care, control, and supervision of her dependent children. Was the movement a wise one? Would the idea progress, and would other states do likewise? Would the state do better than had been done? Could a great state, dealing with the high responsibilities incident to statehood, become the parent, the guardian of children, and discharge all duties attendant as tenderly and successfully as private or sectarian charity had? These were some of the questions of that hour. Michigan and other states have answered them in the affirmative.

The story of the kindness, generosity, and sacrifice of individual and church charity for children in all civilization is well known, and the great good done can never be fully told. But they could not provide for all. Many yet suffered for an agency strong enough to supply means and wise enough to devise methods to guarantee to all dependent and ill-treated children their natural right to protection and education. The state alone could do that.

And state guardianship, care, control, and supervision have met the demand, and have given us the most humane and economical system of child-saving known. It is thirty-one years since Michigan,

the pioneer in this new field, proclaimed the doctrine that it was the duty and safety of the state to care directly for her dependent children. The success that has attended this movement in Michigan has been told at length in various sessions of this convention, and need not be repeated now.

This story of the state is to tell briefly the progress that has been made, in this country, in state care. If any progress has been made, in any modern form of child-saving, it is probably confined to the state movement. Surely, the system which has prevailed most in this country, that of the county poorhouse, does not progress. That is happily dying out. The subsidy system is limited to only two or three of our principal states, and is nowhere popular with the people. The states having the district system are anxiously seeking means to reduce child dependence. But the state system has progressed.

Leaving out of consideration the states that have in part inaugurated state care, without state homes, we find that, since Michigan established the State Public School for Dependent Children, over one-fourth of our states have assumed state guardianship, care, control, and supervision of dependent children with state homes.

In all there are now twelve state homes for these children, one established each two and one-half years since Michigan began her work.

Here is presented the roll of honor of the states which have adopted the state system with state homes: —

State.	*Name of Home.*	*Location.*	*Date.*
Michigan	State Public School,	Coldwater,	1871.
Nevada	State Orphans' Home,	Carson City,	1873.
Iowa	Home for Indigent Children,	Davenport,	1876.
Rhode Island	State Home and School,	Providence,	1884.
Minnesota	State Public School,	Owatonna,	1885.
Wisconsin	State Public School,	Sparta,	1886.
Texas	State Orphan Home,	Corsicana,	1887.
Kansas	Soldiers' Orphans' Home,	Atchison,	1889.
Montana	State Orphans' Home,	Twin Bridges,	1893.
Colorado	State Home for Dependent Children,	Denver,	1895.
Nebraska	Home for the Friendless,	Lincoln,	1898.
Alabama	Industrial School,	East Lake,	1899.

The Kansas home was first established for children of soldiers, and has not changed its name.

It will be noted that the state system has received its greatest ac-

ceptance and adoption in the West, where the newer states have not been obstructed in reforms by ancient precedents and established interests, which sometimes retard progress in the East. In many respects the West is *par excellence* the land of reform.

It is not claimed that all states having state homes are directly indebted to Michigan for the state system. But in a marked degree the majority have adopted the Michigan laws and methods, while others largely reflect the influences of that system.

There is in them all a unity of plan and a purpose to accomplish the same end. In all the state assumes guardianship, care, control, and supervision of all the dependent children of the state during their minority, placing them in approved family homes, under contract providing for their good treatment, education, and some self-supporting occupation.

Dependent children of both sexes, of sound mind and body, are admitted. All these homes are established and supported by the state. There are two exceptions. In Iowa the counties pay for the care of dependent children, and in Alabama delinquents are admitted on suspension of sentence. Girls and colored children are not admitted in the latter.

There are other matters of difference in details. Some admit children at two years as the minimum age and twelve as the maximum. One admits babes one week old, and one at birth. From two to twelve years appears to be the most popular. The law usually fixes the age, yet in some states the board names the age and establishes rules for admission and the management generally.

Where the Michigan system is the least complied with, there is much to be done to amend laws and complete methods. Two state homes admit crippled children who can care for themselves.

These homes appear to be doing satisfactory work, and are popular with the people. Some have been so recently established it will require experience to bring them up to a high standard of excellence, which they will doubtless reach in time, if they accomplish what they may under the state system.

Minnesota has followed very closely the Michigan system. When in 1886 the Minnesota State Public School was ready for the admission of children, its board asked the Michigan institution to recommend some gentleman for superintendent who was familiar with the work. Mr. Galen A. Merrill, assistant superintendent and state

agent of the Michigan school, was reluctantly parted with for that purpose. Mr. Merrill has been in charge of the Minnesota school since then, which is a high testimonial of his fitness and worth.

In Minnesota the admissions are from one to fifteen years. Babes under one year are taken, if requested by county commissioners. Cripples are admitted. The admissions are for dependence or ill-treatment. In the school the children are supported and educated in the common school branches, in music, domestic science, sloyd, farming, and gardening. The average detention in the school is nine months. Those having physical defects remain longer. They are placed in families on indenture or by adoption, restored to parents, and, when found unfit for the school, are returned to their counties.

The great care in selecting homes is worthy of remark. Having no county agents, as in Michigan, not less than six letters are written to parties knowing the applicant for the child.

If the reports are favorable, the home is then visited by one of the state agents of the school who makes the final decision. There are four state agents, one a lady. The influence of the school is to decrease child dependence. The number of children of sound mind and body, supported by the public, has decreased in five years 22 per cent., while the population has increased in the same time 11 per cent.

The experience of Minnesota and Michigan proves what may be done under this system.

Michigan has had the longer experience, and hence its success has been greater. The admissions are for dependence and ill-treatment. All are admitted by order of the probate courts, which pass on the question of dependence or ill-treatment. The ages are four months to twelve years, and the board may receive at birth. Those under four months may soon be admitted.

The baby cottage is always quite attractive, and from it the little babes soon find the best of homes. In each county there is an agent of the State Board of Corrections and Charities who inspects and approves homes. There is one state agent who is constantly in the field visiting the indentured children, to protect their rights wherever necessary and to aid in securing other homes. The children are supervised during minority by the state and county agents, to secure kind treatment as members of the family, education, and being taught some useful occupation. The law prohibits the retention of

admissible children in the county poorhouses, and requires that they be placed in family homes as soon as approved ones are found. The average American family home, especially in the country, is preferred to city homes.

When the Michigan school was opened in 1874, there were six hundred children in the state dependent on the public, most of them in the county poorhouses. There are now less than two hundred of sound mind and body in the state dependent on the public, including babes under four months. The average in the school is about one hundred and fifty, the school receiving all admissible by law. Since the school was opened, the population of the state has increased 87 per cent., while child dependence has decreased 400 per cent. in ratio to the population. There is now only one child dependent on the public in the state to each twelve thousand of the population. For over a quarter of a century in this state, child dependence has decreased as the population has increased. No state, save those acting under this system, can make such a showing.

There are other important agencies at work in Michigan to reduce child dependence. All are a part of the Michigan system. They are: —

1. The State Board of Corrections and Charities;
2. The county agents of that board;
3. The reform schools, one for boys and one for girls;
4. The laws for the protection of children;
5. The free treatment of dependent children at the University Hospital; and
6. The average high standard of homes in the state receiving children by indenture or adoption.

Surely, this is progress and an indorsement that might induce any state, before entering a system of child-saving, to make a careful study of the state system for the treatment of dependent and ill-treated children.

Should not the state lend a hand? No interest is greater than that of the state. The character of the state is the average character of her citizens. The progress of state control is not confined to those having state homes. In different ways several prominent states have sought to stop the increase of child dependence. In Connecticut each county is required to have one or more places of refuge, temporary homes, for dependent and ill-treated children, at

least one-half mile from any penal or pauper institution, with no convict or pauper housed with them; and the children must only be retained until a family home is secured.

In New York, under the new constitution, the State Board of Charities controls the admission and time of detention of children in the subsidized sectarian asylums. In that state there are now about thirty-two thousand dependent children, one to each two hundred and twenty-five of the population, at the cost to counties and cities of about three million dollars per annum. The new law is intended to reduce child dependence.

Indiana is also attempting to control child-saving. In 1897 that state had about seventeen hundred dependent children in fifty district homes and in almshouses. That year the state established a state agency to secure homes for children. Mr. William B. Streeter, former state agent of the Michigan State Public School, was appointed by reason of his experience. The agency proved so successful that two additional agents have been appointed. The result, so far, is that child dependence, and the number of district homes, are on the decrease.

Ohio, with about fifty district homes and about three thousand dependent children, at an annual cost of $225,000, has before it the project of a state agent, which is urged by its Board of State Charities, because of the apparent need.

No state, according to its population, is so burdened by child dependence as California, with its three thousand dependent children in subsidized sectarian asylums, at an expense of about three hundred thousand dollars per annum. And yet there are many in that state working hard, against adverse interests, for the appointment of a state board of charities, with the hope that it may greatly aid in reducing the ratio of child dependants to the population, which is now about the same as in New York.

New Hampshire has lately assumed state control, subsidizing sectarian charities. Whether this will increase child-dependence, as it has heretofore wherever the subsidy scheme has been established, must be told by experience.

New Jersey has assumed custody, care, and control of its dependent children by its State Board of Children's Guardians under a system of especial merit.

The United States in the District of Columbia has assumed the

expense of the care of dependent children by subsidies in sectarian asylums.

In a greater or less degree the states have awakened to the fact that the state should at least control the disposition of dependent children, in order to prevent the increase of child dependence and to secure for these children the right to family life, school, and trade education.

In 1878 M. Drouyn de Lhuys, before the Institute of France, said that the state of Michigan had preceded ancient Europe in the inauguration of a new era for dependent children.

That new era will indeed be inaugurated when all of our states shall establish state control, care, guardianship, and supervision of all dependent children within their borders.

X.

Juvenile Delinquents.

PRACTICAL THOUGHTS ON REFORMATORY WORK.

BY JAMES ALLISON,

SUPERINTENDENT CINCINNATI HOUSE OF REFUGE, CHAIRMAN COMMITTEE JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Every human being is born into the world a dependent creature. It has no power of self-support. For all those things which in a general phrase we call the necessaries of life, it must be sustained by some power wholly without itself. This fact in the relation of the creature to the world about it is not a crime, it is not a fault: it is simply a condition. It is a condition which will certainly continue for years, and which may continue for a lifetime. The relationships which nature has established make incumbent on those who brought this life into the world to provide for its support and maintenance during the earlier days of its life, or indeed during its entire life, if no other provision for its care is developed or discovered.

The child is dependent. Usually, its dependence rests upon a firm and secure support. The forethought and the toil of the parent provide for the needs of its offspring until that offspring is able to sustain all the responsibilities of its existence, and the dependent becomes independent. The independent creature is self-supporting: the dependent must be sustained by some power without himself. Like the two arcs of a quadrant, one is the complement of the other. The dependent condition plus the independent condition makes up the unity of life.

If, now, the power of support which sustained the dependency be removed or destroyed, the creature becomes, in the same ratio of

interference, destitute. The unsustained dependent person is the destitute person.

As there are degrees of dependency, there may be degrees of destitution. One may be destitute of proper and sufficient food, or of proper clothing, or of an appropriate shelter, or, when all the needful elements, with all the "necessaries of life," are deficient, the creature appears within the reach of our searching charities totally destitute. Total destitution may be, however, like total dependency, only a condition, not a crime. It is, in fact, only an unsatisfied dependency. Many a man has found himself in a state of temporary destitution, without food, in scanty clothing, and with nowhere to lay his head, on the morning after a destructive conflagration.

The destitution which we have referred to is a physical condition. The condition of homelessness involves something more. A person may have sufficient clothing, enough of wholesome food, a couch to lie upon, and a roof to cover him, and still be homeless. He may be, for example, not in a home, but in a prison. The true home is a moral atmosphere: homelessness is the lack of such a surrounding influence. It is not enough to say to the homeless, Be ye warmed and filled. The home life is for the soul, as food, raiment, and shelter are for the body.

Thus far we have spoken of conditions which lie without the man, affecting him deeply, seriously, but objectively.

But we are impressed with the conviction that, as the child grows up, there grows up within him, generously and abundantly, if he has been well and wisely trained, and in some degree, scantily and feebly developed it may be in those who have little training, and that perhaps of the worst, a moral activity. In each there grow the germs of truth, the knowledge of right, and the dictates and judgments of conscience. These elements of life and thought are subjective, in the child and of him. They exist in the soul of the well-developed child, and we insist that they ought to be present in the souls of even such as have opened their eyes and ears to the most debasing influences. If, searching for the germs of truth and right and justice in the soul of the child, we find them not, we count him as vile, degraded, untrustworthy. More than that, we insist that he is intrinsically vicious or criminal.

Out of our experience in the world about us, out of our inner consciousness of the life within us, assisted, many will insist, by a revela-

tion made to us from a more exalted instructor, we frame an ideal of life, character, and manifestation. This ideal involves all the elements which we count worthy, such as honesty, fidelity, obedience, etc.; and it excludes all those which we reject as unworthy, such as meanness, mendacity, disrespect of the rights of others, etc. One character we approve as rounded, complete in its tendencies, if not yet in its full development. The other character we judge to be deficient in its elements and dangerous in its tendencies. As this deficient phase of character develops, it becomes vicious. Vice is the subjective quality of the creature. Destitution is the objective condition which environs him. The destitute person is not necessarily vicious, nor are vicious persons found only among the destitute. Destitution may furnish the soil in which vice generates and thrives, while vicious lives may find their largest opportunities amid the most generous surroundings.

When children and youth, whether destitute or the opposite, have developed in themselves so much of a vicious nature as manifests itself in overt acts contrary to the laws which the experience of man has found to be needful for the harmonious and safe life of the world in which they move, we characterize them as delinquent. In the absence of good elements and instinct in the heart of the child, we say he is deficient; in the presence of evil elements in his being, we say he is vicious; when inherent vice manifests itself in unlawful actions, we say he is delinquent.

The delinquent youth may have committed an overt forbidden act. Nevertheless, delinquency is not certainly an evidence of a thoroughly vicious nature or habit. The forbidden act may have been committed through inadvertence or inexperience or forgetfulness. Delinquency is dangerous: it may ripen into crime, yet it has not necessarily reached the criminal stage. A quickened pulse is not always an evidence of fever.

Society finds these various classes of children and youth committed to its care,— nay, thrust into the support of its protecting arms. Its great maternal heart yearns over these destitute, homeless waifs. It must gather them into its fold, it must nurture, train, and discipline them, furnishing all of the home influences of nature's own familiar ties of birth and blood. It may not always succeed; but it must strive to keep the young lives from the evil, and the streams of their existence ever flowing sweet and pure.

The work of providing homes for the homeless and support for the destitute is comparatively easy. Loving hearts may do this. What for the delinquent? The question relates not so much to his destitution or his dependency, or to his objective condition, as to his own internal condition, his subjective character. There needs here a most careful diagnosis, an investigation which may take some time to complete. What is the matter with the youth? Is he essentially bad at heart, is he vicious, or is he only the victim of outward conditions, of untrained tendencies, of harmful opportunities? But, whether he is one thing or the other, the main elements of his salvation are a strong arm ruled by a wise head and guided by a loving heart, and occupation.

The régime for older, more experienced, more vicious examples must be left for discussion in another field.

The causes of destitution and delinquency among children must be sought chiefly in their dependency. The rule is that the child is dependent upon his parents. If they are industrious, honest, and temperate, their own support and that of their children are normally secured. But these conditions do not always obtain. Instead there may be in the parents (1) intemperance, (2) misfortune, (3) death, (4) crime. In one or another of these ways the protective power of the parents becomes destroyed, and destitution follows. It is usual in this list to put intemperance first. A more thorough analysis would enumerate the causes of intemperance. The elements of social science are too complex to be covered in a single phrase. Causes react upon each other here as in physics. A slatternly wife and a drinking husband may present a case in which it may be difficult to distinguish between cause and effect. The only commodity which an immense proportion of our people have for sale is their labor. In what proportion of cases is this labor wisely disposed of? In what proportion is it, directly or indirectly, wastefully squandered? It may be that the speaker and his hearers would not agree if this question were opened and fully discussed,— for in reasoning upon it many are influenced by sentiment rather than by argument,— yet it might be well for both to consider it very thoroughly.

Using misfortune in its widest sense,— for drunkenness is misfortune, and crime is misfortune,— it is quite certain that the destitution of children is caused generally, almost universally, by the

misfortune of the parents. The saddest commentary upon the foolish misbehavior of parents comes from the terrible consequences entailed upon the children.

The delinquency of children looks to other causes or comes through other channels. The child is not necessarily delinquent because it is destitute, although destitution is often the parent of delinquency. Delinquency is not confined to poor and destitute families. Vicious children sometimes appear in wealthy families, bringing gray hairs in sorrow to the grave. As previously suggested, the cause of such sad sequences may not always be expressed in a sentence. In many instances it may be traced to waywardness, selfishness, and disobedience, inculcated very early in life by fond parents who enjoyed the "smartness" of their offspring in their earlier days, and who recognized in a lively temper a most valuable element in character, forgetting that "he that ruleth his temper is better than he that taketh a city."

. . . . . .

What are the remedies? One remedy is found in a large common home, known as a reformatory. And now the question arises, Should open dormitories or closed sleeping-rooms be used in reformatories for delinquent children?

In the family the tendency is toward separation. Each person has his apartment, or not more than two occupy the same room or sleep on the same couch. Benefits to character grow out of the measure of seclusion thus afforded. There is more of self-poise, perhaps more of self-assertion. The person learns to stand alone. His individuality is cultivated. It is possible, indeed, that such qualities may be too largely developed and become blemishes rather than benefits.

For adolescents it is doubtless better that each one shall have to himself a separate apartment, where, in general, he may be free from observation, and probably within the seclusion of a closed door. His own manly self-respect is developed thereby. It is something to every one to have a place, temporary and narrow though it may be, which he can claim as his own.

But the dependency of childhood enters into his hours of rest and sleep. Every kind parent maintains a watchfulness over his sleeping child. The tender mother sees that the child is covered from the chill night air, listens for sounds of restlessness or illness, and,

even when she is not really awake, is ever on the alert. Aside from the impulses of maternal instinct, her sound judgment teaches her to sleep near her child's couch in readiness to give such aid as may be required, often at a moment's notice.

Where the children are numerous, as in an asylum, it is not possible that every little circle of two or three may be cared for by a single adult, as in a family. A larger number in a single hall may readily be cared for by a single person, watching during the night in the same apartment. Each child should be in his own bed, and care should be taken that he does not stray into his neighbor's bed. The light should be so adjusted as to permit safety of movement about the room and to distinguish what may occur in the remotest corners, and yet should be so screened and dimmed as not to disturb the eyes of any sleeper. The presence of so many expanding lungs makes necessary an abundant volume of air, purified by constant change. All these matters may be most regularly and, therefore, most thoroughly attended to in a single larger dormitory than in a collection of smaller sleeping-rooms. It might be very pleasant, and be accompanied with many valuable lessons, if children in groups of six or eight could be fed in separate rooms, with all the attendant courtesies of well-equipped dining-rooms; but we recognize the impracticability of such procedure. Equally impracticable is a system which would put fifty or more children each into separate rooms. The question of cost has not been adverted to. If a system of separate bedrooms were really better for the children in an asylum, the bedrooms should be provided, because the providing society can well furnish the best. It is not, however, an objection to the system of the dormitory halls that it is the cheaper.

One other consideration should be noted, which is that for moral reasons children should never be free from intelligent surveillance, even in the hours when they are supposed to be asleep.

Thus far we have spoken of children; and, to be definite in the application of the term, we should confine it to such as are less than fourteen, probably less than twelve, years of age. These we may describe as in an asylum to be developed rather than to be reformed.

At a later age the processes both of development and of reformation require in this respect a different regimen. The individuality of self asserts itself. The young person is no longer a child, who may be kept in a flock. He or she is a distinct person, whose

separate entity should be kept inviolate. This, it is often urged, is especially true of girls in those years when the merging into adolescence and thence to young womanhood begins. In this period develops the ineffable quality of feminine purity and sanctity, which lends to youth its charm and to character its seal of holiness. The girl should have her room to herself, even though it be but small. A cell which she may call hers is better than the vagrant resting-place in a herd. Let it be sure that in all personal ministrations she is safe from the intruding vision of any person, even of her own sex. The need for that degree of watchfulness which the child required is no longer present, and the girl may be depended upon to care for herself.

Now let us urge that what is true in these respects for girls is equally true for boys. The boy is also entitled to his own quiet, personal home, where ordinarily he may be free from supervision. He should be taught to believe in personal purity and sanctity as certainly as in personal cleanliness, and to practise only what is clean and sweet and pure. The same standard should exist for one sex as for the other in their adolescence as should be expected in their maturer years.

Young persons who are committed to the discipline of a reformatory enter upon a life which, in most respects, perhaps in all, is new to them. This fact is evident because they have been so developed and have so acted as to require for them the regimen of such an institution.

The first requisite for each inmate as he enters is *occupation*. Whether hitherto he has been idle or busy, it is quite certain that he must be busy now. This does not signify that he is to be worked like a slave, chained to some cheerless or revolting task; but his occupation should be connected with the daily needs of his life, or with something which carries with it practical utility and some training for the needs of a future life.

The prevailing idea must be that he is where he is, not for punishment, but for reformation.

Occupation may mean work, but does not mean work only. It should include instruction. Not only should his work be instructive, not simple drudgery, like breaking stone or climbing a treadmill, but he should be taught regularly, and with system, the rudiments of that education which he has probably neglected or evaded. That this mental training should take a form which is kindly and attractive need not be urged.

But, as in the outer world, so here work and school should not absorb the whole time of this young human being. Time must be provided for recreation and amusement. Play should not be cut out of his programme of occupation. Occupation means that he is doing something, and that in a hearty and healthful form. Play is a reasonable as it is a useful form of occupation. It should be provided for with such regulation as may be needed to keep it within proper restraint, care being taken to apply restraint when needed. The forms of play should be athletic, and suitable for the masses to join.

This boy is to be fed; and in the matter of what he eats, where, and how, enters one of the most effective elements of his discipline. If there is any particular variety or regimen of food, taken in a form known and recognized as "prison fare," that peculiarity should not be furnished him. He should be furnished with plenty of wholesome food, extravagances, of course, being eliminated. Within reasonable limits the food should be varied as the season and the market will permit. It should not be limited to bread, meat, potatoes, and mush, with a dash of molasses, while all these items may have their appropriate place. If the institution is near a city, watchfulness of the market will discover many times when vegetables and fruits may be procured at rates which need not be prohibitory, while the variety will be both grateful and healthful. Between extravagance and the dietary too often provided, there is a wide difference, and room for a well-devised middle way.

If the institution is placed as it should be, on the broad acres of a farm, remote from any large town, a most useful occupation for the inmates will be found in growing their own supplies of food, varied and excellent. The boy will not be pampered when fed with the peas, squashes, and tomatoes which his own hands have cultivated and gathered. What evil would follow if the farm carried a herd of cows, milked by the boys, the girls learning to care for the butter? And what if both girls and boys should have some? After all, the chief requisite as to dietary is that all receive plenty of wholesome and varied food.

How shall the inmates be fed? Those in health, and not in retirement as a form of punishment, should always be fed at a table in a dining-room, and not out of a piggin in a cell. The daily programme should provide time when all may prepare for the meal by making the person presentable by arrangement of hair and clothes

and shoes. This should be repeated at each meal, and not occasionally, as if company were expected. Each class should gather at an appointed place, answer to inspection, move in an orderly way to the eating-room and table, take seats quietly, be served neatly, eating from clean crockery-ware, *with napkins*, and retiring as orderly as they can. Loud talk, uncouth behavior, ill-mannered eating, should be observed and quickly corrected. One of the lessons of the reformatory should teach proper behavior in public. A degree of self-respect will grow therefrom.

In other ways the inmates should be brought together, and for other purposes. Such functions, which are really part of the mechanism of management, should be so conducted that the mechanism may not appear. They should lead the way to good behavior, as it avails little to drive people to be good.

But suppose some neglect to behave properly: suppose some will not be good. More will be found to err from neglect than to sin from wilfulness. No person has yet discovered a community without finding therein some who failed to conform to its regulations. No community can achieve a success without discovering and enforcing necessary regulations, enforcing them by determining penalties and applying punishment.

By punishment we mean the enforced application of anything which to the recipient is undesirable or disagreeable, as a penalty for unconformity with regulations.

A midshipman at sea is sent to the masthead as a lookout, to watch for passing ships or dangerous reefs. The duty is necessary for the safety of the ship and its crew. The young man accepts the order with alacrity, and submits to its discomforts without a murmur. Another is sent to the mast-head for misconduct: to him the duty is grievous and galling. Punishments will be infinite in variety, as the offenses will be infinite in character.

The superintendent who has the best ideals of the management of his house includes with his demands for duty and for obedience a constant provision for the comfort and the pleasure of his flock. He does this from the highest motives and the best purposes. In all his planning and in all his performing he is striving to accomplish the best development of the members of his flock by leading them ever through their self-respect and self-love toward higher planes of character. Purposely or by chance he has filled the lives of his

family with events and conditions tending to their comfort and conducing to their happiness. These they may enjoy if they conform to requirements necessary and suitable. The boy may eat in the company of his fellows at a neat, well-ordered table. If he will not conform to the rules of the table, let him eat alone. A little of such regimen will usually suffice. Deprivation of privileges for sufficient cause is a most appropriate and efficient form of punishment.

A schedule of punishments is not here needed. Punishment should not be petulantly administered nor for trivial causes, never in anger, nor in such a way as to make useful things distasteful; for it is a doubtful practice to set intellectual tasks, such as writing lines or committing verses. Nor is it well to require a boy to maintain a position of physical discomfort in any of the numerous ways which a malicious genius seems to have invented.

We do not say that under no condition may physical pain be inflicted; but, if so, it should never be by those torturing methods which seem to illustrate only the ingenuity of the perpetrator.

Should corporeal punishment be administered?

In rare and extreme cases, and as a last resort, yes. It is possibly the only form of punishment which will reach some of the boys sent to a reformatory. If it will reach the case, and lay the foundation of habits of obedience, with what may follow, it would be a crime to waste the boy by omitting the punishment. The rod should be administered only in rare and apparently extreme cases, after the fullest investigation of the offence, without passion or haste, amid such conditions as will preclude any exhibition of assumed bravery on the part of the culprit, and under such others as may give it the character of a solemn, judicial event.

The statement that in a certain institution the rod has not been used for so long a time may mean that the administration has not had the vigor to appeal to it, or that it has been so skilful as not to need it, or that it has had no inmates who needed it.

The man who, without the use of the rod, maintains a vigorous discipline in a large reformatory full of mischievous and vicious boys, demonstrates a rare ability as a manager.

It is well to surround the whole subject of punishment with a large degree of judicial authority. Subordinate officers should not have the responsibility of rendering verdicts and administering punishments. This should rest upon the head of the institution or some

competent officer closely related to him. This will have a tendency to relieve the situation of a multitude of petty punishments for petty offences, while it will give to such punishments as are inflicted a dignity which will make them more effective.

These remarks have been written with a full consideration of the inherent differences between an ordinary public school and an institution such as we are presumed to discuss. In a well-organized school, where a skilful teacher has fairly established himself in his place, there need be no question of corporeal punishments or, indeed, of serious punishments of any sort. The skilful teacher leads his flock, and does not drive it.

The methods used in what is generally known as military training are probably beneficial in cultivating individuality among the pupils. Each student who becomes the teacher of a small class, every monitor of monitors, every officer of a drill squad, is placed where he must stand upon his own feet and maintain his own poise. But these cannot be counted as complete systems unless they arrange promotions, so that every pupil may have his turn as monitor or drill-master. That means that the benefits, whatever they may be, may be enjoyed in turn by all. In an army private soldiers must remain such until they have shown their ability to occupy a higher rank. In a military school each pupil is on the road to official responsibility, and should have the opportunity to learn the details of official duty.

Nothing stirs the heart of a boy so much as does the fact that he is intrusted with responsibility. The words, "There is a chance to show what stuff you are made of," spur him to the best within him; and this may be only the germ of still nobler aspirations. A system which will create minor places to be held in rotation or during good behavior may be made exceedingly useful as giving chances where individuality may be cultivated.

Another source whence may come great benefits in this direction is the personal acquaintance of the superintendent with the greatest possible number of those under his charge.

But this question involves the whole theory of education in general or in special institutions. All good training develops the man or the woman as special personal beings before God and humanity.

In conclusion, it may be interesting for those not familiar with the extent and importance of our work, to know that in the United States

there are 88 reform schools in operation; and, quoting from the report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 80 of these schools show the number of inmates to be 23,901. There are employed 538 instructors, with 1,569 assistants and care-takers. The value of the grounds and buildings, $17,504,444; expenditure on buildings for the year 1900, $576,344; salaries and other expenditures, $3,254,690. The number of children committed during the year, 12,750; and the number discharged, 13,158. When discharged or paroled from the schools, many of the pupils possessed a useful trade and were provided with occupation and good homes. Nearly all could read and write, and the majority had received the equivalent of a good common-school education. Thus it will be seen that between the good which may be and the evil which threatens the conflict is irrepressible. It lies with those who have charge of young lives to foster the good, to repress the evil, and to aid in governing for themselves, the world, and God, multitudes of worthy men and women.

THE CULTIVATION OF INDIVIDUALITY.

BY E. E. YORK,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE INDIANA REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

Development in any form is what people wait and watch for, whether physical, mental, or moral. More especially does the public take cognizance of the latter phase of development in a graduate from a correctional institution. Hence it should be the avowed purpose of all such schools to direct this unfolding in a channel designated to best fit the graduate for society, business, and citizenship. To do this, all forces that tend to produce institutionizing effects and retard individualism must be abolished; for the development of a boy's individuality is a part of reformation. The awakening and cultivation of his faculties, dwarfed by viciousness, licentiousness, and crime, to an appreciation of the true, the beautiful, and the good, is essential.

A boy, whether engaged in delightful sport or in mischief, in

healthful work or under restraint, is a boy still; and "his will is the wind's will." His freaks of thought, his pranks, his bubbling enthusiasm and mental activity, are too often crushed under the eagle eye and supervision of some precise, austere, and domineering official. Discipline is absolutely necessary for the symmetrical growth of a boy; and it is owing to a lack of discipline in generations past that our boys are to-day truants, vagrants, law-breakers, and such a menace to society that, as a last resort, the court advises rigid correctional training and they are made subject to our institutional plumb lines. Notwithstanding these hereditary influences, the spasmodic home training, and the bad environments, we can turn their feet from forbidden paths and prove the falsity of the saying that "reform schools do not reform," that an institution for juvenile offenders is but a kindergarten for intermediate reformatories and prisons.

Nine years' experience in this work has proven to me beyond doubt that individuality cannot be cultivated until you have gained the confidence of the individual, and I know of no better way to gain the friendship and confidence of a boy than by a kindly interview on the very day of his admission. A friendly talk will at once allay his suspicion and timidity, and many times put to shame his brazenness. By a series of diplomatic and guarded questions we can ascertain with accuracy and to our material advantage a true insight into the boy's character, and often have him unconsciously reveal the history of his past, enabling us or his new instructors to begin the foundation on which to lay the corner-stones of morals, truthfulness, temperance, and gentleness.

The interview wins his friendship, and that friendship ripens into confidence, and confidence begets individuality. Our work is not yet done. We must place our boy under the guidance of an affable, firm, prudent master, who will help by his own example. The courteous replies and gentlemanly ways of an officer have a tendency to draw as a magnet the respect and admiration of the boy, so that reproof can be offered and heeded without the slightest resentment; while the curt answer and rebuke arouse his unrefined nature, and no good is accomplished.

A boy must be taught that, while you are his adopted friend and counsellor, at the same time you exact implicit obedience to all rules regulating his reformation and deportment; and, when such rules are

violated, the firm hand of discipline without passion or prejudice will check his career of wrong-doing. Let him understand that he can approach his superiors in a respectful manner at the proper time and place to discuss reports, petty trials, or his personal or spiritual welfare. By granting such privileges and by a cheering word you can relieve homesickness, heartache, and remorse. Your liberality will assist in banishing the revengeful feeling that he harbors against those that he considers his persecutors. How often is stern coldness shown, and honestly so, for the sake of discipline, when less frigidity would have accomplished a far better result!

I entertain grave doubts if true reformation and individuality are produced by rigid obedience to all rules, simply through awe or the fear of the lash. You may produce surface reformation by driving the boy until you have a machine or automaton, but reformation in the heart and mind is wofully deficient.

Do not count me a sentimentalist or a theorist. I advocate the strictest discipline; for laws must be obeyed and order maintained, even though corporal punishment be inflicted which at times, is an excellent panacea for the insolent and insubordinate law-breaker.

The gymnasium, the ball-field and playground, are important factors or aids to natural freedom, as play and sport tend to get the boy out from under the constant supervision of the official. It is certainly exhilarating to listen to the sound of five hundred voices joined in mirthful play on the campus, where reports for misdemeanors are forgotten and boyish enthusiasm runs high. We advise the suspension of rules for an hour's invigorating play every day, as it enhances discipline and banishes discontent and unhappiness.

To let a boy choose his trade is preferable, when consistent with the rules of an institution, as it awakens dormant energy, adds zest to his work, and develops skill, thus leading him to form habits of usefulness, as well as preparing him to fight life's battles anew alongside the artisan and mechanic.

Too often boys are kept in shops, though they have no aptitude for the specific trade, and manifest no interest or love for the work, but perform their duties simply from policy and to gain promotion. The boy's time is wasted, and labor lost which could otherwise have been utilized to his betterment and education.

The school-room and library must be used in cultivating individuality. Concert recitations should be abandoned, as they are not

conducive to either educational or individual development. With a well-defined course of study, under the direction of an inventive, bright, up-to-date teacher, a boy's ignoble thoughts can be changed to such a degree that he will be led to seek pure channels of thought and higher ideals for virtue and pure manhood.

Military instruction for physical culture is worthy of our attention, and should be given in all institutions for juvenile offenders, not for disciplinary effect alone, but for the physical and educational growth of the boy who stands in need of just such training. It produces pride in dress, erect carriage and movement, as well as patriotism, which are more than secondary in importance when individuality is under consideration.

Family cottages should be homelike, and should not house over twenty-five or thirty boys. No man can take fifty or sixty boys, with as many distinct dispositions, and do justice to himself or those under his charge. My plea is for the individual. I fear our state correctional schools do not realize the value of such training, nor always strive to maintain it.

Motherly love is too often wanting, especially for the correct training of our smaller boys. It is seldom that we find a man who is thoroughly interested in the small boy. A matron, full of affection, kindness, and love for the unfortunate and forsaken boy, is, in our opinion, a necessity for true reformation.

Freedom of worship should be allowed. Observance of the Sabbath day and reverence for God's temple and word must be taught. An able chaplain can render efficient service for the cleansing of the moral and spiritual atmosphere of an institution when working in harmony with superintendent and subordinate officers. Moreover, when we get the idea that these institutions are not prisons, nor schools for punishment, but hives teeming with industry, then individuality can be more readily developed, and institutionizing effects diminished.

XI.

Needy Families in their Homes.

RELIEF AND PREVENTION.

RELIEF WORK AND PREVENTIVE PHILANTHROPIES AS RELATED TO CHARITY ORGANIZATION.*

BY CHARLES FREDERICK WELLER,

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As it is said that all thinking consists only in the discovery or expression of analogies and contrasts, one may possibly be justified in expanding beyond the usual limits a familiar metaphor by which modern charity work is compared to medical service. Ordinarily, only the three fundamental features of charity organization work are brought into this comparison. The physician's diagnoses suggest charitable inquiry or investigation. The need for co-operation in charity work is indicated by considering the disasters which would ensue in medical practice if five or six doctors should treat one patient, all at the same time or in rapid succession, without consultation as to diagnoses and prescriptions. Friendly visiting is suggested by the physician's enlistment of a trained nurse in special cases. As there is little need to dwell upon these three principles, I hasten to apply the suggestive analogies of medical science to a topic whose consideration is deemed a thankless, if not a dangerous, task for an orthodox, well-behaved charity organizationist.

Excluding Relief.

"As the doctor is not a drug store, so the charity organization society is not a relief agency." This dictum concerning the organi-

*While the term "Charity Organization" is used to suggest mainly the Associated Charities, Bureaus of Charities, and Charity Organization Societies, it also refers to such United Hebrew Charities, Associations for Improving the Condition of the Poor, or other agencies, as are really undertaking the broad work of organizing charity according to the fundamental principles of the modern Charity Organization Movement.

zation of modern charity is one which we have had the greatest difficulty to maintain at National Conferences and, more especially, in the propaganda of our individual societies. Our restlessness and persistent lack of conviction on this subject might well suggest that we have been endeavoring to settle the relationship of these functions by mechanical rather than philosophic means. At any rate, modifications of this mooted principle have been taking place in both the smallest and the largest cities. Many small towns have found it impossible to maintain separate societies for relief and charity organization. In the largest cities, also, where charity administration as a matter of practical adaptation to actual situations exerts a compelling power upon its agents, our leaders are beginning to ask whether the relation of relief work to other charitable activities is not mainly a question of expediency.

Charity properly includes Relief.

Doctors do not usually prepare or dispense their medicines. But it is not a matter of principle that they should not do so. In fact, we find an exception to such a principle in homœopathists, who do carry and administer their remedies. In small communities the doctor is often the druggist, just as he is also a combination of all the professional specialists. It is true, of course, that the progress of medical science is promoted by a subdivision of functions, and that such division of labor is itself a mark of advancement. The druggist has thus been differentiated from medical practitioners in general, and the latter have been subdivided for the extreme development of certain specialties. Here, I think, are our main arguments for separating relief administration from other charity functions. First, the elimination of relief work promotes the clear emphasis of other charitable functions in the minds of the general public. Second, the charity agent is enabled to perfect his skill by narrowing his range; he may do his work better by having fewer duties to perform. But, if it be true in the field of charity that the setting aside of relief work is only a matter of expediency, a question of emphasizing the other charitable activities and of making specialists possible, then we need to remember two things: First, physicians cannot accomplish the very best results unless they control the dispensation of drugs. Second, in medicine one becomes a

specialist only after laying a broad foundation as a general practitioner. The first consideration would suggest that a proper performance of other charitable functions presupposes an intelligent control of material alms. According to the second analogy, excellence as a charity organization specialist should be founded upon an intelligent comprehension of the all-inclusive, general field of philanthropic endeavor, and must be seriously abridged by lack of adequate experience in administering relief. The very name "Associated Charities" or "Charity Organization Society" suggests inclusiveness, suggests the "organization of charity." The fact is that a charity organization movement is incomplete in so far as it merely excludes or ignores relief work. Bitter experiences prove this. Relief societies have been our stoutest foes in many cities. Relief givers have misunderstood us, largely, I think, because we have not understood relief and have emphasized our negative rather than constructive suggestions concerning it. In short, the relief function has been, in proportion to its strength, the undoing of charity organization work, wherever, in communities or in individual cases, the latter has ignored the proper functions of material alms.

The One Test, Efficiency.

The governing principle or purpose, both in medicine and in charity, is this: to relieve, cure, and prevent distress. A practitioner of either science fails in proportion as he falls behind his profession in the ability to diagnose diseases correctly and to apply properly the best-known remedies. He succeeds in proportion as he cures individual cases or protects and promotes the wholesomeness of his community. Neither the patient nor the general public, nor his fellow-practitioners, need be greatly concerned as to whether he carries the curative agencies with him, or writes an order upon some custodian of them, or merely counsels another, less-expert physician, who undertakes to secure and administer the needed remedies. Jesus mixed dust with spittle to anoint the eyes of a blind man; and the energetic practitioner, of either medicine or charity, may well move heaven and earth, employ mud or prayers, give unincorporated counsel or roll a wheel-barrow of potatoes, so that he cure the individual case of need and prevent or decrease the sum total of distress.

Not Identity, but Co-ordination.

It is not to be inferred from the foregoing suggestions that charity organization societies can be justified in rushing carelessly into the administration of relief. There are situations, in large cities and elsewhere, which would make it desirable to observe strenuously the differentiation of material almsgiving from other charitable functions. The ideal, in many instances, would be a distinct organization controlling the city's general relief work, but co-operating cordially with other charitable forces. The organizers of charity in a given community might possibly find the situation such as would lead them even to develop two independent associations, one for relief and one for C. O. S. work, the two societies to have identical districts, but in each district distinct offices and independent agents.

It is probable, however, that the general trend of philanthropic thought and practice is away from such extreme differentiation as this. In some cities the adjustment is effected, with apparent satisfaction, by establishing a nominally independent relief society, so closely related to the Associated Charities that it uses the latter's offices and agents, grants supplies only upon orders of the latter, but makes distinct appeals for relief funds and enables the Associated Charities to be recognized chiefly for its own fundamental functions. In some cities a so-called relief agency, of an earlier day, has been taken up by a new class of workers, and so infused with modern spirit and advanced methods that its work can hardly be distinguished from that of a charity organization society. In brief, the letter killeth, the spirit giveth life; and the organization of charity is far from complete in a city where relief work is merely left to a public disbursing officer or to a moribund general relief agency, whose workers are untouched by the renewing impulses of modern philanthropy. To bring all charity work into harmony with the highest spirit and most advanced methods should be the aim of every charity organization society. To this end our profession may well be freed from an almost superstitious fear of relief work which has prevailed. The writer aims, therefore, to discount somewhat the arguments with which, in assisting to inaugurate Charity Organization movements in one or two small cities, he has warned the new workers to shun relief-giving as the one unforgivable sin. It is now suggested that, when the situation truly demands it, a charity organization society

may undertake the direction of relief funds without necessarily destroying or retarding its finer charitable activities. The maintenance of a modern philanthropic spirit is not especially identified with the avoidance or assumption of any single function. Relief or no relief, our societies must look primarily to competent, trained leadership, large ideals, and progressive mastery of our profession for real progress in the charitable field. This brings us again to our medical analogy.

How Charity may become a Science.

The fundamental cause of progress, in medicine, is not the separation of the doctor from the drug store, but the constant development of professional skill. Medical practice has become a science because the determining purpose in medical work is, first, that the individual practitioner shall be enabled, and required, to keep abreast of the best knowledge and practice concerning the cure of diseases, and, second, that the common body of professional knowledge shall be constantly extended and developed. What analogy can we find in these suggestions for the development of a science of charity? In the first place, the steady progress of medicine is effected by the differentiation and analysis of specific cases. What this means in the realm of philanthropy is suggested by the pamphlet concerning "Deserted Wives," a study recently made in the Associated Charities of Boston, or by the title selected for a paper at this Conference discussing "What Part Relief should play in the Treatment of Families whose Distress is mainly due to the Husband's Shiftlessness, or Inefficiency, or Intemperance." What is mainly needed now for the advancement of charity is the study of the poor. We need to classify our cases rather than our remedies. Concerning the various classes of needy families we need to collect, systematize, and disseminate the results of the experiences of workers in all portions of the country. Too much emphasis cannot possibly be placed upon case work, upon the thorough, constructive investigation of cases, the discovery of successful means of curing specific cases, and the winning of our communities mainly by treating adequately the individuals and families whom its members refer to our societies. It is also to be noted that broader philanthropic activities, such as are to be mentioned in the later pages of this paper, will probably be insecure and unsound in important particu-

lars, unless they be founded upon an intimate knowledge of individual families among the needy and upon the very best case work which is made possible anywhere by the present development of our profession.

Training and Professional Standards.

The practice of medicine as a profession advances, in the second place, because the profession is organized. Organization in this instance means five things: First, certain qualifications are required of those who seek to enter upon training for the profession. Second, there are professional schools which put the individual in command of the scientific knowledge and organized experiences which have been accumulated in books or in lectures, and also afford him actual practice in case work under the supervision of successful practitioners. Third, requirements for graduation from schools of medicine and for entrance into active practice of the profession are specified and enforced. Fourth, practising physicians are organized into local medical associations which determine and enforce standards of excellence, collate experiences, and develop professional knowledge. In the fifth place, there is a great body of literature, including magazines, pamphlets, and books, which develop and distribute knowledge as to the classification, analysis, and successful treatment of diseases. Finally, there is steady advancement, unremitting progress, in all these five branches of professional organization. Standards are constantly being raised. Admission to training, length of schooling, requirements for graduation, ethical rules for the active practitioners, all have first been brought under control, and are now being steadily pressed forward.

Methods of Advance in Charity.

To see what these analogies would each mean if applied to charity work is such a simple matter that I shall not attempt to review these five suggestions in detail. What is mainly important is that we appreciate the principle or method of progress. Medical science has advanced, not because the doctor has ceased to be a drug store, but because of case study and professional organization, as described. Similarly, charity work may be expected to become scientific, not through some patent arrangement for the elimination of

relief problems, but by the development of professional skill, professional schools, and authoritative standards of entrance and excellence in the profession. At present too many of our workers are merely picked up to undertake some immediate task, as if one having a leg to be amputated should advertise for a surgeon and select some intelligent carpenter or school-teacher, who before seeing the advertisement had never even heard of surgical work.

Preventive Philanthropies.

Our conclusion, according to these arguments and analogies, is that the relation of relief work to a charity organization society is much the same as that of child-saving, district nursing, tenement improvement, or any other department, which is sometimes affiliated with a charity organization society, sometimes not, as best fits the size or character of the city and the society's *personnel.* Leaving this conclusion and its tributary suggestions to find their proper level in practical experience, we need to carry somewhat further the application of our medical analogy. Preventive philanthropy needs to be emphasized as preventive medicine has been. Workers trained as scientific physicians are now engaging in the promotion of sanitation and of public hygiene and in the many activities of municipal health departments.

Playgrounds and Improved Homes.

If the function of a charity organization society is so to develop and systematize the philanthropic forces of a community that distress shall be relieved, eliminated, and forestalled, then such an association should consciously promote general wholesomeness of social life, as the medical profession defines and develops conditions conducive to public health. In this connection, there is strong and apparently increasing interest among charity organization society workers at present in playgrounds, small parks, public baths, the prevention of consumption, and the improvement of housing conditions. Associations for improving the condition of the poor, relief agencies of various descriptions, and charity organization societies, both large and small, are taking part in social service of this nature. It might even be asked, whether in these spirited forward move-

ments, in these large public services concerning whose utility all are enthusiastically agreed, we may not find a means of bringing into co-operation the various departments or branch organizations of charitable work. Perhaps the relief societies, churches, hospital and institution workers, nurses, physicians, friendly visitors, and charity organization society agents of a given community could all be brought together in occasional conferences to discuss a "Social Programme" for their city and to plan for the promotion of preventive philanthropies.

Communities and Neighborhoods to be Studied.

In discussing this phase of our subject, we are brought again to emphasize a former suggestion, that the hope for scientific development and progress in our profession lies chiefly in the systematic study of cases. It is now to be observed, however, that case study is not exclusively individual. To master cases, we must also study neighborhoods and community life. Each new means of charitable treatment, every new philanthropic activity, suggests new points of view for individual cases. Thus a progressive charity agent, who has argued and labored for the establishment of a tenement-house commission, can hardly remain content with the old-style statistical tables regarding "causes of distress," which seldom give adequate consideration to the influences of environment. For, although we are not inclined to forget that poor people make poor homes, we are beginning to appreciate, also, that poor homes make poor people. So I say that, when we study cases, we must study them in their surroundings. "Society," "social relations," "social service,"— these are the words we must repeat and emphasize to correct the conservative tendencies which would overestimate individualism, consider only the individual causes of distress, and be content merely with individual case work.

Social Consciousness to be Developed.

Physicians apparently have less reason than charity workers for broadening their studies and activities beyond the treatment of successive individuals. The doctor's patient requires only to be relieved of a disease embraced entirely within himself. In a charity "case," however, part of the individual problem itself consists in the person's

social relations. The applicant's ties of kin, acquaintances, church membership, former schooling, industrial relations, connection with a labor union or mutual benefit society, and other social affiliations, are such inseparable features of individual cases that we are easily led to a study of communities and neighborhoods. Even for this broadening outlook the medical profession affords such inspiring analogies as the elimination of yellow fever from Havana, Cuba, through scientific mastery of large social relations. Here, then, is one of the most essential and promising functions for the progressive charity organization society. It is to stimulate, develop, and organize social consciousness. Our "tenement committees," or "committees on the improvment of housing conditions," find that one of the fundamental services which they must early undertake consists in making their community conscious of the evils which exist. Who can review Charles Booth's studies of the London poor, or read B. S. Rowntree's statistical analysis of poverty in York, England, without feeling that a similar study of his own community, if made public in effective ways, would do more than any other means possible to arouse philanthropic impulse and to direct its activities? As it is, we may agree that any charity organization society falls behind the vanguard of our profession unless its workers are regarded as the leading authorities in their community concerning conditions among the city's poor and the needs of its neglected neighborhoods. I believe a charity organization society or Associated Charities may be forgiven for being unorthodox upon the subject of administering relief if it goes ahead with sane energy to study its field, to master individual cases, of course, but also to affect social conditions in immediate, practical ways; if it arouses the community to understand the necessities of its disregarded neighborhoods, if it develops the spirit of fraternal helpfulness and tactfully organizes it into wholesome forms of social service. This means leadership, which in turn means competent workers, adequately paid. It means youth and newness, also. It requires constant replenishing of energies and the live maintenance of an enthusiastic, truly philanthropic spirit. Given these, relief work will not destroy the finer functions of charity organization. Indeed, the surest way to make certain that relief work shall occupy the subsidiary, minor positions in which it properly belongs is by developing and emphasizing the other charitable activities until their proportionate positions and proper functions are adequately sustained.

Charity becoming more Democratic.

Disease is democratic. Medical science is democratic, also, being wholly intent upon the cure of sickness, whether a poor or rich man be affected. Charity, too, is quite as eager to treat each patient sincerely according to his fundamental needs. As for charity, however, it is difficult to entirely avoid some sense of patronage in a work which consists, specifically, in giving something to the destitute. Charity has come down to the present generation without very radical changes in some of the forms and practices by which it was characterized in the days of kingly rule and aristocracy. We all feel at times a hot impatience with the word, and all agree that one of our tasks is to redefine "charity" in the public mind. More and more strongly, as we serve among the poor, a passion for fellowship possesses us. We blush more painfully than our applicants do whenever the common practices of philanthropy compel us to humiliate them in undemocratic fashion. As we learn to appreciate the conditions, internal and objective, which determine people's lives, we can no longer assume an attitude of superiority. Philanthropic assistance is needed. Our calling is to give it. We, therefore, seek the most democratic means of contact with our needier brethren. And this consideration leads us to discuss the methods and spirit of social settlements.

Adaptations from "Social Settlements."

Charity organization societies in several cities are being affected by various features of so-called "settlement" work. In some places the secretary or agent of the Associated Charities is the head worker of a settlement house. Elsewhere charity organization society workers are simply numbered among settlement residents, and *vice versa*. The subdivision of a charitable field into districts is not new, but neighborhood work and "Neighborhood Houses" or centres are evidently stimulated somewhat by the example of college settlements. Friendly visitors are sometimes spoken of as "social settlements in motion"; and the true-spirited friendly visitor, or district agent, is very apt to desire, and occasionally to take up, actual residence among the poor. Such charitable visitors are constantly seeking to work out natural means of contact with needy

people, constantly striving to get their protégés and themselves out of the "charity" relationship on to some common ground of mutual interests and fraternal sympathies. Societies like the "People's Friendly Clubs" of Chicago, Washington, and elsewhere, have resulted from such impulses. These clubs have usually been organized on the basis of a common interest, such as the fact that all of the comparatively resourceless people invited to constitute their first membership were united in working a large patch of vacant lot vegetable gardens. Organizations of "stamp-savers" have also been suggested for similar purposes; and sometimes the charity applicants residing within a given district have simply been invited to a reception or entertainment, not, of course, as charity applicants, but as included in a group of people whom a certain agent or other acquaintance desired to bring together. As we more and more undertake the study of groups and communities of comparatively needy people, we shall be increasingly inclined to use such settlement methods as entertainments and educational classes. We shall desire to organize or make use of such good-fellowship clubs as will enable us to resocialize families who have fallen out of helpful touch with their fellows. We shall devise various means of so organizing comparatively resourceless people themselves that they shall stimulate, develop, and assist *each other*.

Philanthropy's Latest Forms.

Three successive impulses have been experienced in the development of modern philanthropy since the middle or early years of the nineteenth century. These have resulted in a series comprising three stages or planes of charitable effort. No one of them has been entirely distinct from the others, and all together are essential to an adequate expression of a modern community's best thought and feeling upon the pseudo-science of philanthropy. First came relief work; then charity organization societies, then social settlements. In important ways each successive development represented a truer sense of fellowship, a more complete democracy, a more appreciative understanding of the point of view of poor people themselves, than did the earlier manifestations of philanthropic spirit.

Each should learn from the Other.

I am not suggesting that a sentimental, untrained, temporary resident of any social settlement is expressing a nobler spirit or accomplishing more good than an efficient agent of a well-conducted charity organization. In my own mind, charity organization work is the first and fundamental necessity in any community. Without co-operation, careful case study, clearing-house records, wise administration of relief, and systematic friendly visiting, for all of which the Charity Organization Society movement strongly stands, the philanthropies of any city are sure to be in the unwholesome, inefficient condition of houses built on shifting sands. As for the *personnel* of charity organization work, I never knew more earnest, hard-working, kindly, devoted, efficient, useful people than the agents of our various Associated Charities, whose spirit is all the more to be admired because their detailed, hard labors lack some of the alluring social charm and easy indifference to a searching analysis of individual cases which would attract us all toward settlement work. Both charity organization societies and social settlements have something to learn from each other. I am here discussing chiefly what the charity organization societies should adopt from the settlement movement, because the organization of charity is my own especial field and because I am now speaking mainly to charity organizers.

To avoid "Growing Old."

We must take up into our own work some of the new impulses, advanced points of view, and social activities which the Settlement movement expresses. These will help to forestall the danger that our societies may grow old and inflexible, and that the Charity Organization movement may some time be crowded out of its present commanding, central position in the philanthropic field, as relief agencies have been superseded by the charity organization societies themselves. We are already learning, partly from the settlements and partly from the social situation itself, to bear a cordial share in promoting playgrounds, small parks, stamp-savings work, compulsory education, summer outings, the proper relation of schools to philanthropy, and the improvement of housing conditions. These activities constitute a bond of union between us and the settlements, of whose work such social services as these are particularly characteristic.

The Profession of Philanthropy.

We have already learned to co-operate with social settlements in general community movements, as well as in individual case treatment and relief work. Settlement residents are everywhere and always the best friends of the charity organization cause. The final fact is that, although there be many servants, there is one service; and that is the service of our brother men. It is the essential unity of all philanthropies that I wish to emphasize. "All are but parts of one inclusive whole." And the charity organization society may well aspire to occupy the central and commanding position in this field. It may appropriately undertake to organize the entire realm of charity. It can certainly do no less than attempt to understand appreciatively all the differentiated organs and functions of philanthropy and to help bring them all into adequate co-operation.

"Charity organizers" we are called to be, with no partial, narrow, mediæval interpretation of the good word "charity," but rather that which the apostle Paul has given in the thirteenth chapter of First Corinthians. We are called to help systematize and develop an unorganized, rapidly growing profession. It is our task to make of charity work a science of social service. If we ignore any portion of the field, or fail to appreciate and to help incorporate any valuable suggestions or essential functions, wherever they occur, we thereby confess ourselves inadequate and incomplete. Our hope of continued progress lies in our becoming the efficient servants of all philanthropies and the agency for all remedial measures which will upbuild our needy comrades.

The spirit which should be our inspiration is manifest in the Carpenter of Galilee, who understood the people whom He sought to help, who met with them on common ground of cordial fellowship, who took upon Himself the ordinary burdens of the common life, refusing no essential task, however humble, who thus developed a religion of social service, and led mankind to speak of Him, in reverence, as "the Great Physician."

THE RELIEF OF NEEDY FAMILIES.

HOW SHOULD THIS BE ORGANIZED IN CITIES OF LESS THAN SIXTY THOUSAND INHABITANTS?

BY A. W. MCDOUGALL,

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This topic involves the discussion of an adjustment of the usual methods of organized charity to the needs of a small community. Before entering upon the discussion proper, it will be interesting to note the importance of this phase of the charity organization movement.

There are 422 cities in the United States with a population of over ten thousand. Of this number 360 are cities of less than sixty thousand. If we include communities as small as five thousand, the figures will show a still greater disproportion. There are 775 incorporated places in the United States with a population between five and sixty thousand, while there are but 62 having a population of over sixty thousand.

Of the 133 societies for organizing charity, now in existence in this country, 79 are in communities of less than sixty thousand. It would seem that the principal field for the further development of charity organization is in the small community.

How shall the relief of needy families be organized in a small community? The first question that will occur is,— What charitable societies and institutions are there in the community, and how far are they doing wise and efficient work? What equipment has the community already for assisting its needy families? The first step in the process of organization should be to prepare a directory of the existing charitable societies and institutions for the purpose of familiarizing the public with them and their purposes in some systematic way. It is the a, b, c, of the art of charity that those who wish to practise it should know the tools which they are to use in their own community.

In the endeavor to relieve needy families in the small community, the charity worker will find a great variety of wants confronting him. He will meet with the needs that in larger cities are usually supplied

by relief societies, by provident loan associations, by children's aid societies, by societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, by day nurseries, by children's homes, by old people's homes, by legal aid societies, by hospitals (both general and special), by convalescent homes, by homes for incurables, by fresh air funds, by rescue homes for men, by rescue homes for women. He will find few of these societies or institutions in existence or possible of organization. At the threshold of his work he will face the problem of a variety of needs, practically as great as in the large city, and yet in quantity too small to justify separate organizations to meet them.

How shall these various needs be met? The problem of charity organization in the small community is evidently that of getting this variety of work done with an amount of charitable machinery and an expenditure of means commensurate with the size and the social conditions of the community. How, then, shall this be accomplished? Evidently, the work must be along broad and general lines; and the society whose function it is to bring about this organization must depart radically from the methods of the charity organization society in a great city. It must turn its hand to new tasks and adapt itself to new fields of work. The keynote of its work must be "breadth of sympathy." Organization must be accepted in its broadest and most vital meaning, that of co-ordinating and adapting means to ends. The charity organization society in a small community must be a charitable factotum, assuming leadership and responsibility for many phases of charitable endeavor not within the scope of its kindred society in a great city. This will benefit its work rather than otherwise, will tend to make it more earnest and vital. Indeed, a charity organization society, working in a small community, has distinct advantages. On the one hand, it has the advantage of working at a limited problem; and, on the other, the inspiration of doing a vital and many-sided work in each individual case.

Certain elementary provisions are necessary in the small city as they are in the large. They need not be elaborated here. They are: —

First a public office, which shall be a bureau of information with regard to the charitable needs and the charities of the community, and a medium of intercommunication between the charities, between charitable people themselves, and between the well-to-do and the poor.

Second, a registry embodying the facts with regard to the dependent families in the community.

Third, a system of investigation for ascertaining the facts with regard to families in need, which facts are to be added to the registry from time to time and to be made known, as far as necessary, to those seeking to aid the needy family.

Fourth, a system of co-operation, made possible by the foregoing, among charitable individuals and societies, in the relief work of the community.

In the small community, however, as in the large, investigation, registration, and co-operation are only means to an end. They are without point or effect unless they lead up to some helpful plan of relief for the family.

At this point occurs what would seem to be the initial difficulty with which charity organization in the small community has to contend. Usually the carrying out of any plan for the permanent relief of the family devolves upon the agent. The society decides at the outset that it cannot afford to pay much for an agent. The amount of money it has at command is small, often abnormally small, because of the limited field of sympathy upon which it depends for support, owing to the mistake of attempting to specialize as a charity organization society in a large city would do.

When an agent is to be engaged, the fact is lost sight of that upon the agent is likely to rest the initiative and the burden of the whole work. It is an interesting commentary upon a society which advocates the broad and inspiring principles of charity organization, and undertakes to influence and guide the whole community to wiser and more helpful methods of charity, that it should pay its agent, for instance, twenty-five dollars a month. Manifestly, a community is unlikely to follow the leadership of an employee who receives less than the poorest paid teacher in the same community, and whose mental and character equipment is likely to be less than that of the teacher. Fortunately, there are many cases of capable and efficient agents in small communities serving more for love of humanity than for money; but a community is more likely to value what it has to pay for and in proportion to what it has to pay. To underpay the agent of a charity organization society is to miseducate the public and to lower the dignity and importance of the work. It is fair to assume that the business of charity organization, other things being

equal, will follow the same line of progress as teaching or any other profession or business. To secure results, it is necessary to provide at least ordinary and reasonable means.

The writer has in mind a community of twenty-five thousand, a college town, where the compensation of the agent is lumped with the expenditure for stationery in the last annual report. In the treasurer's statement occurs this item: "For agent's salary and stationery, $240.00."

It is very progressive for a community to adopt the principles of charity organization, but it is well to remember that charity organization is not automatic. Its success means earnest, intelligent, discriminate work, persistently carried on. It means that the community which wishes to succeed in bringing systematic and helpful relief to its needy families must put trained intelligence, time, and money into the work.

To repeat, the central office and machinery must be a means to an end. Investigation of the circumstances of a needy family will bring to light conditions requiring action. The charity organization society must outline the plan for the wise assistance of the family, and must secure its adoption in good faith by individuals and organizations interested. It must itself take an active part in carrying out this plan.

Three phases of the problem present themselves at this point: —

First, as has been noted, the co-operating societies and institutions are likely to be few in number in the small community, and must therefore adapt themselves to local conditions.

Second, the charity organization society must supplement their work by itself performing new functions.

Third, conditions may prevail in the small community which may modify and limit the part sometimes taken by the friendly visitor in the relief of needy families.

Adaptation of Societies and Institutions to Local Conditions.

While the needs in the small community are practically as varied as in the large city, they cannot be met by an equal variety of charitable organizations. A single hospital should meet both general and special needs; it should take chronic as well as acute and accident cases; it should provide a maternity ward and a

children's ward, and should take care of contagious and infectious diseases. A children's aid society should be also a society for the prevention of cruelty to children; it should do a placing-out work; it should co-operate with school authorities in truancy cases, and should supplement the work of an orphan home or day nursery. An orphan home, if one exists, should do the work also of a children's home, offering temporary care to all classes of children and co-operating with a children's aid society in the support of a placing-out work. Fresh-air work, in a small community, where air spaces are abundant, should be restricted to giving rest and outing to overworked and ailing mothers, to sickly children, and to convalescents.

It may become the privilege and the function of the charity organization society to bring about this readjustment in the small community. How can it do so? Only through influence gained by itself doing a broad and helpful work.

Material Relief.

Among the additional functions that would seem to fall naturally to the charity organization society in the small community is that of providing material relief. The amount of temporary relief which it is necessary for such a society to give is so small in the aggregate that it would not justify a separate organization, even if that were not undesirable on other grounds. It would seem to the writer most unwise to attempt to organize a separate relief society in a small community. The thing to avoid is the conception, on the part of the poor people, that there is any permanent fund in the community upon which they can depend for support.

Temporary relief, followed by the use of work agencies and employment bureaus and by solicitation for deposits in a provident savings fund, will educate the poor to the idea that, while the society has sympathy and will promptly relieve immediate need, its main object is help to self-help. By adopting effective substitutes for relief the goal may be attained, in a small community, of doing away altogether with the need of a relief society.

Emergency and temporary relief only, however, should be given. Continuous relief should not be so given. The practice in this regard need be no different in the small community from that in the large.

Continuous relief, adequate to the need, may be secured from relatives, employers, church, friends, or from individual donors as each case of need arises. The relief secured in this way may be put in the form of pension and administered by an individual, the charity organization society, as far as the family is concerned, remaining unknown in the matter. To the family assisted the raising of the pension may mean nothing more than that a number of benevolent people have come forward to provide in a systematic way for their assistance.

Is there not danger that a society that does this relief work will be considered a mere relief society and will sink to that level? The writer can only refer to the experience of Orange in this regard.

The Orange Society has always given immediate and temporary relief, when necessary, without hesitation. The impression is not prevalent that it is a relief society, simply because in fact as well as in theory it is not such. The practical work accomplished among the poor people by its work agencies, its employment bureaus, its provident savings fund, its cooking classes, etc., has made it unlikely that there will be any doubt upon this point. With regard to the well-to-do people the society has had too broad a field of activity to be considered a relief society. Its work of organizing a conference of the charities and churches of the community, its initiative in securing the organization of a children's aid and protective society, its interest in numerous charitable undertakings, have prevented this.

The relief work done by the society has distinctly strengthened its position in the community. It is safe to say that it never would have had the strong hold which it now really has upon the sympathies of the people, if it were not that it had shown a readiness to give relief when it was necessary. It has avoided all the antagonisms that arise from a theoretic discussion of relief-giving. People learn by object-lessons rather than by theoretic discussion.

A charity organization society which subsides into a mere relief-giving society may look for the fault to its agent and its officers. Has not the time for discussing relief-giving or no relief-giving by charity organization societies passed? The public has been educated to the minor importance of relief-giving. The thing for a society to do, it would seem to the writer, is to go ahead and develop its work along constructive lines, and let relief-giving sink into its proper place.

Preventive and Constructive Work.

The task set before the charity organization society in a small community is to get accomplished the earnest work of really and permanently helping the needy family. It finds itself compelled to turn its hand to many sides of this practical problem. It must be responsible for material relief. No sooner has it undertaken this responsibility than it finds it necessary to provide substitutes for relief and ways of minimizing the ill effects attendant upon even necessary relief-giving.

Substitutes for Relief.

Peculiarly appropriate to a small community are the work agencies and employment bureaus. The service that can be performed by these has a greater effect, proportionately, in a small community than in a large city.

The function of a work-room for women should be only in small measure that of affording relief through work. Its principal purpose should be that of a work-test, in order to serve as a basis for a thorough-going employment bureau. A mistake was made in the early history of the work-room in Orange in over-emphasizing relief in work. The attempt was made to use it, in a more or less indefinite way, as a means of influencing the women beneficially. Members of the committee read periodically to the women, and occasionally talks were given them. Every type of woman was admitted, including the drunken and incorrigible. It was soon found that there was too much of the sentimental in the dealings with them. Instead of the work-room influencing the women favorably, it was the contrary. Those of bad reputation exercised a stronger influence than the superintendent was able to exert, and the work-room began to have a distinctly harmful effect upon the industrious and respectable.

The work was faced about, so to speak, and a new departure made. Gradually, the work-room has become an industrial centre. By the use of a system of employment cards, which were taken out by the women and returned with the indorsement of the employer, they were taught that the object was not to give them charity, in their sense of the word, but to put them on their feet industrially. At present the Orange work-room has, as its beneficiaries, only a few

old women. An able young woman very quickly finds that the intention is to assist her to help herself, and soon secures outside employment.

The following figures are interesting as indicating the development of the work-room work (they are for the eight years of its existence): —

	1894–95.	1895–96.	1896–97.	1897–98.
1. Different women given work in work-room,	207	159	136	133
2. No. days' work given	2,196	1,576	1,892	2,029
3. Women sent out to places, principally for day's work	198	253	395	439

	1898–99.	1899–1900.	1900–01.	1901–02.
1. Different women given work in work-room,	95	53	53	58
2. No. days' work given	1,232	794	864	760
3. Women sent out to places, principally for day's work	495	662	697	758

The committee of ladies having the work-room in charge, finding it impossible to continue their constructive work within its limits, as the younger women no longer come, have been compelled to carry this work into the homes of the women. A series of cooking classes has been held each winter, and this year a course of plain talks has been given by a woman physician accustomed to speaking to working-women. These talks have been made a medium of social intercourse, bringing the ladies into contact with the women.

The wood-yard has offered a similar means for the employment of men, and for securing them work in the regular industrial field.

Provident Savings Fund.

Next in importance to a public office, to registration and investigation, it seems to the writer, is the maintenance of a provident savings fund. The poor in a small community are well posted upon all that is occurring in the charitable field. They know more of the personality of those who are doing charitable work, and such work affords greater possibilities of harm. There is no surer method of convincing the poor that the purpose of a society is to help them to help themselves than by conducting a thorough-going provident savings work. This work must be made to have equal prominence in their minds with that of relief, work-room, wood-yard, or any other department; in fact, to have greater importance than any of these. It

must be taken up on the educational side. The beneficiaries of charity must be taught the value of saving and the desirability of self-help. Every small community should support an active provident savings work.

Personal Service.

No emphasis has been laid thus far upon the element of personal relations with the poor. In the end, however, the only way the poor are to be helped is by personal touch, by personal friendliness. The highest development of charity is the work of individual for individual. Charitable organizations serve their best purpose when they are means to this end. The personal element absent, vitality, earnestness of purpose, and inspiration will be wanting. The hope for social regeneration is an understanding between poor and well-to-do, which can only come by contact in some normal, mutual, helpful way. How can the personal element be developed in the relief of needy families?

Friendly Visiting.

Shall the charity organization society in the small community adopt the system of friendly visiting usually followed in the large cities? The experience of Orange may be of assistance in answering this question.

Friendly visitor work was undertaken in Orange eight years ago. The theory of the work was to investigate cases of need, to make a record of the information gained in this way, and to refer to a volunteer visitor the work of organizing relief for the family. Ways were to be devised by the visitor for developing within the family itself activities that would result in self-help.

Three conferences were in operation in as many parts of the Oranges. These, at first, were largely attended, and considerable enthusiasm shown. General appeals were made from time to time for volunteer workers from churches and elsewhere. Changes were made from year to year, and new plans tried, in the attempt to correct unsatisfactory features of the work. For five years the meetings of the conferences were kept up, and the effort made to thresh out something practical and tangible. The work, however, became more and more unsatisfactory.

Gradually, the friendly visitor conferences, as such, were given up,

and assigning cases, as a regular system, abandoned. The work has developed along the line of selecting here and there a visitor and here and there a family, in each case discriminating, with the thought of effective, practical work. The indiscriminate appeals for friendly visitors are no longer made, and, it is safe to say, will not again be resorted to.

There is no question that, if the friendly visitor work had been continued along the lines on which it was undertaken, the Orange society would now be struggling with an increasing number of chronic families. The poor of the community would have been distinctly harmed.

Two causes, it seems to the writer, are responsible for the Orange experience,— one general in its bearing, the other having to do with the small community as against the large.

In undertaking to organize volunteer personal service in the relief of needy families, there is a phase of the problem that must be taken into account. The end and purpose of our charity is to bring permanent help to the poor, to make them independent. This necessarily involves a consideration of the element of character. The final goal for which we are striving in our charity is the development of character. This implies, however, the possession of character by the one who would practise charity.

In the practical problem of relieving needy families there comes up constantly the necessity for considering the spiritual values, those things that have to do with the character of the family rather than with the physical need. It is impossible for a society to train or develop this capacity where it does not exist. It would seem that the charity organization society should rather depend upon the church for furnishing this equipment, its own function being to utilize this by offering opportunity and pointing out methods.

Again, the work that is sought to be done by friendly visiting is the practical work of judging character and assisting to restore the dependent to normal conditions. It presupposes a knowledge of the world and of experience and judgment: these are usually the result of practical contact with the problem of living. The problem of restoring the unsuccessful person to an industrial basis and of helping him to make a success of his struggle for self-support presupposes moral force. No visitor can hope to advise or influence such a struggling person unless he or she has moral power and earnestness.

When the successful business man, the man of affairs, the man of character, can be drawn into friendly visitor work; when the capable and efficient mother of the well-to-do household, who has organizing ability, who has practical knowledge of housekeeping, of directing and training servants, can be interested,— when these can be brought into the ranks of charity workers, then there will be larger possibility of successful, constructive work of volunteer visitors.

The writer has in mind an instance of two young ladies, members of a wealthy home, interested in friendly visitor work, neither of whom can thread a needle or do the simplest sewing. They lack industrially just what the unsuccessful, untidy mother of the poor home lacks. How, then, can they benefit such a mother?

The second cause for the Orange experience, it seems to the writer, has to do with the size of the community. The difficulties of volunteer personal service are aggravated in the small community. Community life is more developed. The poor are more sensitive than in the large city. Information travels more quickly. The poor people are likely to hear and be critical of anything that is undertaken in a charitable way: they are likely to know the personality of those who undertake to do charitable work and to read between the lines, to see only the actual, and not the ideal of what the volunteer visitor is undertaking to do.

The Broader Friendly Visiting.

The writer would suggest the following programme, for the small community in introducing the personal element into the relief of needy families: —

First. Develop the broader and less artificial friendly visiting. Give time and effort to conserving and increasing the interest of donors and inquirers in families whom they have aided or about whom they have asked information, to strengthening family ties, to fostering church connections, to establishing personal relations between employer and employee.

Second. Develop the personal influence and personal work for needy families of the paid workers, constantly keeping in mind that methods and machinery are only means to ends, that the only real charity is personal touch and helpfulness.

Third. Use volunteer service in provident savings and other definite work.

Fourth. Develop the work of friendly visiting along restricted lines.

Friendly visitor work should be modified in its application in the small communities as follows: —

First. Discrimination should be made in the selection of friendly visitors.

Second. There should be definite, practical training of these visitors.

Third. Discrimination should be exercised in the selection of the families to be visited. It would seem a waste of effort to employ friendly visiting as a means of bringing certain types of families into right relations with the community. Is there not a line of social and moral living below which the community, as a whole, should not allow a family to drop? There is, or ought to be, a minimum standard of living, of sanitary conditions, of provision for children, of moral considerations, which the social body should demand of its members.

It seems impractical to attempt, through the efforts of volunteer visiting, to win back families who have fallen below this standard. Their efforts would best be applied to conditions where there is a fair promise of effectiveness. The righteous influence of the community, through its police, through its board of health, through its society for the prevention of cruelty to children, through its compulsory education laws, should be brought to bear in compelling the recognition of these minimum demands of social living. The healthiest line of development would seem to be more of active, normal, social pressure in the round of community life.

A definite part of the work of a society for organizing charity in a small community is to arouse the social body to a normal performance of its functions, to awaken the social consciousness: a part of its work is to take up the tangled threads of social influence, of healthy community life, of law, and weave them into a dynamic, constructive force for the betterment of the poor of the community.

The Spread of Charity Organization.

In closing, it will carry inspiration to express the conviction that at no distant day there will be going on, in the scores of smaller communities throughout the country, the earnest work of ordering

and systematizing those charitable forces which are now so often ill-ordered, emotional, and unthinking, and that, ultimately, these forces will be set to the task of smoothing the path of the poor, strengthening the weak, protecting the children, forcing out the ne'er-do-well to honest labor, and guarding and elevating the home. The charity organization movement in these communities will not only mean better care of the poor and neglected, but a strengthening of the whole moral and social life of the community. This seems to the writer to be the true meaning of charity organization in the small community.

IN THE SMALLER CITIES; FORESTALLING A HOUSING PROBLEM.

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The housing question is, of course, essentially the same in all cities; but quantitative changes often produce qualitative changes. The size and age of the city are generally the factors which enter most largely into the problem, although occasionally topography and a few other accidental items are met with.

According to the last census there are in the United States thirty-five cities ranging in population from 75,000 to about 200,000, and twenty-five cities from 50,000 to 75,000. Housing conditions vary greatly, of course, in these communities. Some of the smallest are suffering from evils resulting from former carelessness, while a few of the largest are yet fairly safe. The younger cities, as a rule, have at present no serious housing problem, although the experience of the older places shows that it is very easy for them to acquire one. All of them have the fairly good dwellings turned into tenements, some of them have the shanties on alleys, most of them have the imperfect living rooms over stores in the business centres.

According to the report of the New York Tenement-house Commission, the most serious of the evils existing in the city of New York are: (1) insufficiency of light and air; (2) danger from fire; (3) lack of separate water-closets and washing facilities; (4) over-

crowding; (5) foul cellars and courts. While individual examples of some or all of these evils can be found in perhaps most of the smaller cities, yet, all told, they can scarcely be considered serious. These cities have few tenement houses as such. Yet it may be said of apartments over stores, as Mr. Devine has said of the block system in Rochester, that with added stories, with longer halls, with less light and air in the living and sleeping rooms, the blight of the tenement house will fasten itself upon many of these sixty smaller cities if public opinion is not vigilant; for in all of them may be found a certain number of people ready to live the slum life. Credit should be given the New York workers for awakening people generally to this danger. Doubtless the greatest benefit flowing from their agitation of this question with reference to their own city has been to bring the inhabitants of other large cities to see that they have a similar problem to meet, and the people of smaller cities to realize that they will have one if they do not now exercise precaution. We hope the New York enthusiasts are being accepted as prophets at home; they are already so recognized in the other cities of the country. As an example it may be mentioned that the city of St. Paul, although having a good building code, adopted a new one last year copied in great part, word for word, from the new building code of New York.

This introduces one method of forestalling the problem, the adoption of good building codes, giving ample powers to the officer charged with their enforcement. The mechanical safety of the building, proper plumbing and electric wiring, sufficiency of light and air, freedom from danger from fire, etc., can thus be insured. Laws of this kind are necessary, but it must be apparent that they do not constitute the chief element in a comprehensive plan of maintaining good housing conditions. They are material, external, and largely negative. Of equal importance are large legal powers intrusted to the chief health officer of the city. He can do much to prevent housing evils. We have on a few occasions found in a block in our city quite a large family living in one room. With the aid of the health department we were able to see that such a condition continued but for a few hours after its discovery. The lesson thus administered to both landlord and tenant was wholesome, although the method did not appeal to the higher motives. So far as legal enactments are valuable in warding off housing problems in the smaller

cities, doubtless the greatest need is for regular sanitary inspection of tenements, as is now generally made of back yards, by qualified health officers.

It is a fact, of course, that the tenement conditions in the larger cities make the maintenance of health, ambition, and moral strength difficult for the people living in the slums. The welfare of the tenants is a reason given for the leveling process which has been resorted to in some cities, but there is an element in such work liable to mislead. It is necessarily somewhat spectacular,— the changing of the site of an unsanitary building, used for immoral purposes, into a park,— and permits some people of generous impulses to fancy that more has been accomplished for the tenants than the facts warrant. Such proceedings are chiefly helpful to the people who continue to live near where the objectionable structure was and where the park now is. Those who were in the building have moved, but it is unsafe to conclude that they have necessarily been improved. Most of us have doubtless heard of the experience of London in this thing. Buildings unfit for habitation in Shoreditch were destroyed, and model tenements and open spaces took their place. Later many of the unfortunates who had been living in the houses torn down were found in Battersea, on the south side of the Thames, living in conditions of wretchedness similar to those in which they had existed in North-east London. This is not to hint that such forced changes should not be made,— they are often necessary,— but it does indicate that there are other important factors in the problem. I am anxious also that no one should think that this is a criticism of New York methods. The workers there know that this line of argument is sound; they have so taught. Of course, a discordant note from there will carry as well as if produced in any other quarter; and discords always appear loud.

After recognizing the evil effects of a bad house upon its inmates, it must be admitted that the reason why many people herd together in ill-ventilated, dirty rooms is because it suits them to do so. The place they occupy in the march of humanity's advancement is shown by their habitations. Of course there are many exceptions to this rule, but there can be no doubt as to its being the rule. Many of the people who live in this wretched manner are simply following the course they have always pursued, either here

or in the country from which they came. The fact that the standard of life for most of us has been raised brings their deplorable condition more distinctly to our view. One benefit coming from the use of the electric light is that it enables us to see more filth and ugliness. There is something in neatness and order and cleanliness, even in fresh air and vines and flowers, which is not congenial to some spirits; and they will leave it all for an inside room in a tenement. This points to the fact that psychologically there are influences at work with such people deeper than those exercised by their place of abode.

If this reasoning is correct, it will follow that the most effective method of forestalling a housing problem where it does not exist — and, for that matter, of lessening the evil where it has established itself — is to create in the misguided or unguided people, willing to live in unwholesome atmospheres, a desire for better things by cultivating those deep, subtle, subjective forces which control their lives. Of course, we cannot be content to leave them in wholly unfit habitations while we are engaged in raising their standard of life. External methods, among which may be mentioned assistance in securing better wage conditions, are necessary, as means to the end to be attained; but, to deal successfully with the housing problem, our purpose must be to improve the people directly affected, not merely their conditions. And, in the case of the people going downward to the slums, they can certainly be helped more easily if taken before they reach the bottom. An account which is not without educative value has been given somewhere of the plan adopted by a person who fell into possession of one of those unwholesome tenements. For the most hopeful-looking of the tenants he offered to make some slight repairs, relating chiefly to neatness and cleanliness, on condition that the tenant would maintain the standard set. The offer was accepted, and the contract faithfully lived up to. Before long another tenant asked to be given the same opportunity. The request was complied with. One by one nearly all of the tenants came to the owner with like proposals. He accepted them all, no increase being made in rents. After the tenants became accustomed to the new order of things, when the daily compliance with their part of the terms of the contract had become a delight instead of a burden, the owner began to talk of improvements which would involve some increase in rents. By

somewhat slow mental processes the tenants came to think the suggestion wise, and the improvements were made. Later other improvements came in the same way; and gradually a wholesome, normal condition in the lives of these people was brought about. An effort to have done this all at once would have resulted in failure on the part of both.

As to more detailed methods in rebuilding character, they are chiefly to be found in the friendly visiting plan. The settlement idea is, of course, substantially the same. Devices for teaching thrift are helpful, so are public baths. Compulsory education and free kindergartens are included of course. Associated with slum life there is a vicious feature which is alarmingly prevalent elsewhere, this is the street as a place for play. All the smaller cities have this problem now. Playgrounds, properly managed all the year round, but especially during the summer vacation, are a crying need. In time this work must be assumed by the public. If we cannot conduct playgrounds which will be more inviting to children than the street is, we should be ashamed of ourselves. When we have introduced them, we shall have forestalled to some extent the housing and some other problems. With the playground idea is coupled that of the vacation school. It is a coming institution. In mentioning forces which may be turned to good account in reaching the lives of the people content with slum life, I have no desire to omit the church, the most powerful of all. All forces must be directed toward developing life from within, enlarging the view of possibilities, arousing courage and hope. To strengthen the capacity for self-help, for social enjoyment, for artistic appreciation, and for love, are ends toward which we must unceasingly direct our energies.

There is in the agitation for better houses for the poor an element of hope. There is something significant in the desire to go to the root of the matter, even in externals. The evidence that we are making much use of our statistics concerning the causes of distress is wanting, and this is true to some degree with reference to our seeking the real causes themselves. So, in working upon the tenement-house problem, we may acquire the capacity to observe other deep causes of wretchedness, and the courage then to undertake their removal.

STATUS OF ORGANIZED CHARITY IN THE WEST.

BY CATHERINE FELTON,
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The industrial and climatic conditions of the Pacific coast and of the Middle West are so unlike as to make any grouping of the two regions without special significance. This paper will then confine itself to a consideration of the status of organized charity in the states of California, Oregon, and Washington.

Associated charities were organized in the larger Western cities in the latter part of the eighties, and in several of the small cities in the early nineties. To one familiar with the rapid development of similar organizations in the East it would be a surprise to find that many of these societies have as yet developed little individuality of their own, that they have not reached a state of maturity. Not being a "Son of the Golden West," he would fail to see in this "long period of helpless infancy" an indication of high rank in evolutionary development. To him the Western societies would appear as backward, under-nourished children. To account for this backwardness is, then, our first task. The Eastern cities had had a charitable history of twenty years before they gave birth to the charity organization society. Climatic and industrial conditions, the presence of a large and ignorant foreign population hovering on the verge of dependence, the destitution caused by a great war,— all these causes had given rise to a problem of poverty so grave as to force itself upon the attention of the strongest and ablest people in the community. An experience of twenty years had shown the danger of indiscriminate relief and the need of trained service in charity work. It was small wonder that under these conditions the charity organization society could, like Minerva, spring into being fully armed and ready for battle.

The conditions in the West, when the charity organizations societies were established, were entirely different. There was still much of the pioneer spirit here. The demand for labor in all departments was greater than the supply. With the exception of the native Spaniards, our foreign population had been thoroughly sifted in its trans-

continental journey, and had found in the mild climate and the suburban farm gardens conditions not unlike those at home. The absence of extremes of temperature had robbed poverty of half of its discomfort. Under conditions such as these, other problems, those of a new and growing civilization, pressed to the front; and, if there was a problem of poverty, few gave it serious concern.

Charity organization was a movement borrowed from the East. Its usefulness could be explained: its vital need was not felt. Organized in this way, with a limited following, and even this following rather half-hearted, guided by no past experience, confronted with no pressing problem, it is little wonder that the charity organization society lacked virility, that it tended to emphasize the negative rather than the positive aspects of its work,— to expound, as Miss Richmond phrases it, "the Old Testament rather than the gospel of organized charity."

We find, then, in the early years that the charity organization societies confined themselves pretty closely to their investigating function, and that the end of their investigation was rather to supply facts to the co-operating societies than to formulate and suggest plans, thus placing themselves in the position of servants rather of than leaders and guides.

Within the last few years there are indications that there is to be a revival in our charity work, a development to meet our own peculiar conditions. The universities are beginning to emphasize sociological work, and to suggest to their students the interest that lies in the study of home conditions. The settlement movement has come, calling attention to the fact that a city can be interesting even if it is without a slum district, and that its own special problems and their solution can be understood only by the student of local conditions.

The very fact that we have not been confronted with any serious problem of poverty has made us careless and indifferent to the problems we do have. The subject of charitable administration has not appealed to many of our strongest and best thinkers. We have allowed our state institutions to fall under the control of partisan politics, and we are now threatened with a political board of control. In the absence of any public opinion we hesitate to extend the jurisdiction of the state either in the supervision or administration of charities.

Any one prompted either by personal ambition or the desire for

gain can, for example, organize a society for the protection of children, procure the names of a dozen prominent people to constitute what is literally a nominal board of directors, solicit support from an indifferent public, and so put himself in a position where, unhindered by responsibility to any one, he can determine the future of perhaps fifty or a hundred helpless children.

One illustration will show the sort of work made possible under this régime of *laissez-faire*. A baby farmer was brought to trial. One of the witnesses in favor of his management was a "Daughter of '96." (The "Daughters of '96" is not a patriotic order, but a volunteer home-placing society, organized in 1896.) This woman, after a cursory examination of the premises, had placed there a three-weeks-old baby, an illegitimate child, whom she had, I believe, taken from its mother. She had made no inquiry as to whether there was any milk on the place. It turned out that the managers of the farm believed that milk was too much infected with germs to be proper food for children, although suitable as an article of diet for adults. When asked by the opposing attorney if she did not think it a piece of criminal carelessness to place a baby without making any inquiries in regard to a milk supply, she said with some degree of asperity that she had raised a large family of her own, and that it was her experience that you never could tell what was going to agree with a baby, so anything might. After placing the child in the baby farm, she had never visited it; and a year had passed. When asked if she knew the child had died within two weeks of being put on the farm, she said it might be so, she didn't know. Later investigation showed that it was not her baby, but another that had died, and that her baby had been given to some travelling woman, and taken nobody knew where.

On the one hand, then, the universities and settlements are creating an interest in the study of local conditions, and leading students to prepare themselves for charity work. On the other hand, our own special problems are beginning to take definite shape; and one, at least, is pressing for solution,— the creation of an efficient agency of supervision, which shall have back of it the power of an intelligent public opinion.

Enough has been said to show that, in any discussion of organized charity in the West, emphasis should be placed not on its history, but on its future, the question of interest in such a study being, How far

do present conditions indicate the lines of future development? As has already been said, we have in the West no neighborhood poverty, no poverty of any extent due to permanent lack of employment, to overcrowding, or bad housing conditions. Our poverty is, as a rule, due to causes arising within the family group. The terms "worthy" and "unworthy" are not so meaningless with us. We rarely find degenerate children. The original stock is usually sound enough to prevent degeneracy in the children, even if the mother or father is dissipated and of no account. We come in contact with the vicious, with the dissipated, with the unfortunate; but we do not come in contact with those whose intellectual development has been so dwarfed as to make them almost unadaptable, almost unplaceable. And for this reason, between the office force and those in whose interest it works, there can be established a democratic relationship which seems impossible under the conditions prevailing farther east. We do not find, between the poor and the well-to-do that absolute difference of standard that for Miss Addams makes the "subtle problem of charity."

I remember how hard it was for me, during my first winter in Chicago, to realize this difference in standard, how impossible it was to be democratic when in many cases, in talking to an adult, I had to adjust myself to the standard of a child.

How different it is in the West is rather subtly shown by our inability to use certain stereotyped phrases: they seem to stick in the throat. There is a repugnance to the word "case," except as used in numerical computation. We never compare our work to that of a physician's, nor speak of taking a child from improper family conditions as a surgical operation.

Our struggle with the vicious and immoral is on too nearly equal terms — so far as the art of war is concerned — to make it seem appropriate to say they are in need of discipline or have been disciplined.

In the West Side office in Chicago it never occurred to us to open an employment office for casual labor, because the people with whom we came in contact were not competent to do even the simplest sort of work in a well-regulated home. To meet the problem of lack of employment, we were forced to make work.

In our Western cities, on the other hand, many of the women who have been reduced to temporary dependence through the death or

desertion of the husband are women who have had their own well-ordered homes, who are capable and efficient, and who need only a fair start to become independent. Under these conditions the employment bureau usually plays an important part in the charity organization work of the West.

The development of the employment office feature tends to still further raise the grade of people with whom we deal. Once have it understood that a number of those who come to your office come for work, and not because they are in need of material relief, and others will seek you out who are perhaps hard-pressed and in need, but who would be too proud to go to an office known to be only for the destitute.

In the West, because there are so many people adrift, so many who have broken away from all home ties, there is probably a rather larger proportion than elsewhere of educated people in temporary difficulties.

The Western charity organization society, then, will tend to emphasize the agencies which deal with temporary rather than with chronic poverty. It will develop a work-finding rather than a work-making facility.

The attitude of the associated charities in the West toward relief-giving is probably fairly well settled. Every society in the states under consideration gives material relief. In no city except San Francisco is there a general relief association, and in none is one at all likely to be organized.

The associated charities have taken a definite, easily defined position: they give relief in those cases which do not come under the jurisdiction of any special relief society. They combine the functions of a charity organization society and a general relief association.

To determine whether their position is justifiable, let us review the arguments usually urged against such a combination of functions and see how far they are applicable to Western conditions.

The Eastern charity organization society found a general relief association already organized and with strong financial and moral backing. To become a relief-giving agency was to duplicate work already done, and to come into the subscription market as a competitor.

In the West the few general relief societies that were established

died of mere weakness. And so for the charity organization society to give relief in cases that do not fall under the care of special societies does not bring it in competition with existing agencies. In doing so, it assumes a clearly defined position, which is easily understood.

The second argument, that, the society will be "submerged in a sea of almsgiving," loses its terror when we realize that the sea under consideration is not more than knee-deep. Oakland spends about $600 a year in general relief (apart, of course, from county outdoor relief); Portland, in administrative and relief work, between $8,000 and $10,000. The general relief society of San Francisco spent only $2,000 in relief last year. The Seattle Charity Organization Society expended about $800 in the same way, or one-third of its entire expenses.

The third argument, that the agent is kept up to a higher standard of efficiency when he must justify to some third person every expenditure for material relief, is as applicable in the West as in the East. There are, however, certain counterbalancing considerations.

The Western charity organization society hesitates to create an organization, and then take from it all interesting and inspiring work, to bring into being a society with so limited a field of activity that, if it has any energy, any initiative of its own, it is sure to overstep its proper limits, and so to pauperize.

Our Western society, then, must strengthen the moral fibre of its agents, as it cannot shield them from the temptations incident to almsgiving.

The distrust of state activity before mentioned has already given the associated charities in several Western cities semi-public functions,—functions ordinarily performed by state, county, or municipal authorities.

Thus in Stockton the associated charities through its registrar disburses all outdoor relief granted by the county, has charge of orphans and the placing of them in private homes or public institutions, and investigates applications for admission to the county hospital. While the organization is a private corporation under the control of its own board of directors, the salary of the registrar is paid by the county. The association has undertaken this public work from its organization, and has won for itself the confidence of the entire county.

The associated charities of Portland has secured the abolition of out-door relief, and through its close co-operation with the police department has cleared the city of tramps and beggars. Its offices in the courthouse, its name,— the City Board of Charities,—its influence in legislation,— all point to its semi-public position.

In San Francisco, in the absence of any municipal or state supervision over private charities, the Merchants' Association and the Associated Charities have formed a joint committee known as the Charities' Endorsement Committee. Its function is to investigate all organizations requesting indorsement, and to give proper credentials to those considered honest and efficient. Five hundred prominent firms have agreed, wherever practical, to adopt the policy of giving only to indorsed charities. The committee was organized on the first of April, and it is too soon to tell whether it will be successful in its efforts to eliminate fraudulent and inefficient charitable organizations.

From present indications it seems probable that, as our Western societies develop and become more efficient, there will be an increase in their semi-public functions.

The Eastern specialist, unacquainted with our local situation, would find much to criticise, little that seemed promising in our Western charity organization societies. He would see the records imperfectly kept, the registration bureau but half developed, the investigation superficial when judged by the standard of the East, and, seemingly unconscious of all this, the charity workers themselves busy in their efforts to improve their neighbors' work,— organizing state conferences, trying to bring about co-operation among children's institutions, investigating here, endorsing there. How much better it would seem to him to do thoroughly the fundamental work, to give a new meaning to the phrase "charity begins at home"! and yet I think that this criticism would come from a failure to grasp the local situation.

There was a time in the development of California agriculture when land was plentiful and labor scarce, when it paid to adopt the extensive system, paid to turn to a new piece of land when it meant to leave the last but half cultivated. So in our charity work the field is large, the land plentiful, and the labor scarce. The charity organization societies are the only people interested, not in one institution, but in the charities considered as a system. In this

stage of development they cannot afford to waste their effort on detail; their work is to plan, to organize.

Agricultural development in California was retarded because the farmers had become so used to the extensive method, so scornful of details, of small economies, that, when conditions changed and the need came for intensive cultivation, they could not change their methods.

So our charity development will be retarded if in our larger efforts we lose sight of the value of details, if, because forced to do superficial work, we allow our ideal of thoroughness to be degraded.

When conditions change, we must be ready to turn from the extensive to the intensive cultivation of our soil.

THE RELATION BETWEEN SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS AND CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY ROBERT HUNTER, UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK.

In London, where both charity organization and the settlement movement were born, the relations between the two have not always been most cordial. This lack of enthusiasm of each for the work of the other is to be attributed — almost entirely, I believe, to the wide difference in the principles and aims of the charity organization society and the settlements; and this difference is largely ascribable to the variance in the economic thought and social conditions of the two periods in which these movements had their birth. The fundamental ideas of the charity organization society were formulated at a time when the Manchester school of political economy swayed the minds of the English people. The doctrine of *laissez-faire* was widely recognized as a most important economic principle. The competitive system was regarded with almost universal approval. Success denoted strength, fitness, righteousness. Failure denoted weakness, unfitness to survive, and unrighteousness. The individual causes of distress and poverty were emphasized and discussed. These economic ideas and principles were the foundation upon which the charity organization society was built; and

to-day it is, perhaps, the foremost association representative of that school of thought which is most extreme in its individualistic opinions. Since the time of its organization the problem of the charity organization society in London has been, primarily, to manage and organize the givers of relief so as to prevent the character demoralization which is involved in pauperism. With the large question of poverty and the social causes of distress, the charity organization society has hardly concerned itself. The economic forces which induce poverty are dealt with by the London society only as speculative problems suited for discussion in conference. The charity organization society has rarely, if ever, striven to eradicate the social causes of poverty; nor has it promoted sufficient consideration of them in its great and important work of warring against pauperism.

The settlements, on the other hand, were born in an era of new economic thought, when the whole of London was in a turmoil of labor and economic questions. It was the year of the "Bitter Cry," when the unemployed marched in great hordes to denounce capital and to protest against the social conditions which, as they would say, forced them into poverty. Since that year the economics of England have not been only of the Manchester school, and those interested in the social movements of England no longer feel that the only causes of distress are individual ones. The settlements, coming into the world at this time of great social unrest,— a time when multitudes of workingmen were in wretched poverty through no fault of their own, but because of general social conditions,— very naturally had their attention drawn to working people; and upon working people their attention has been centred ever since. Compared with the charity organization society, they have had little direct personal contact with the pauperized element of society; and they have never devoted themselves to solving the problem of the poorest and most wretched of the community, who all of the time live more or less on alms. The field of usefulness which the settlements have marked out for themselves is in educational work and in a fellowship with the order of working people, which Charles Booth catalogues as "D." They are that class of working people of small but regular earnings who most strenuously fight for economic independence, and stand in more or less constant fear of sickness, death, or unemployment. No one's interest can be bound

up in this class without his being compelled to deal in some way in his own mind with the many forces which centre upon it, and swish it upward and downward almost like driftwood in the sea.

One can see immediately how widely different are the sympathies and the effort of the settlements and the charity organization society in London. In this country for a while we were in a fair way to follow the lines of the two parent social movements. For a time there was a very general criticism against the methods and purposes of the charity organization society in New York City. During this period, in visiting among the settlements, I was astonished at the prevalence of feeling manifested against the work that the charity organization society was doing,— a feeling entertained especially against such work as followed the lines laid down by the charity organization society of London.

However, in recent years there has been a kind of development in the principles and aims of both charity organization and the settlement movement which has brought them close together. Their fields of work have been different, but each has come to value the work of the other in a way that would not have seemed probable a decade ago. It is noteworthy that the present charity organization society in Chicago was to no slight extent promoted by the settlements. Between 1886, when the society which the Rev. S. H. Gurteen organized became "benevolently assimilated" by the Relief and Aid Society, and the winter of the panic, 1893–94, there was no charity organization society in Chicago. Out of the organization which arose to take care of the needy that winter developed the present charity organization society. In the early days of the new movement the settlements assisted in every possible way to keep it alive. The settlements found such demands made upon them by the suffering poor who applied to them for relief that their time and resources were absorbed in the charity problem. Those things which they had planned as suited to their own effort could not be developed until the responsibility of the needy poor was transferred to other hands. The settlements, therefore, used every means in their power to strengthen and broaden the present "Bureau of Charities." The reason for the support of this association was not that the residents of the settlements were always in sympathy with the methods pursued by the charity organization society in the Eastern states or in London. Rather, it was aided, so far as I can discover, because it was abso-

lutely necessary to have some organization of the charities of the city, and because the settlements wished to free themselves from the pressure of relief work which was interfering with their own special activities. In consequence, the Bureau of Charities has been closely identified with the settlement movement, and has in a way developed certain new ideas concerning the most important work to be done by such an organization.

As the relationship between the settlements and charity organization society in Chicago has been most cordial, it may be interesting to observe what each expected from the other. Above all else the settlements counted upon the associated charities to order the entire charitable machinery of that city. They argued that the associated charities is not a new charity. It is in a great measure a new method for using existing charities to the best advantage. The object is to bring the charities of any community into such harmonious association as will permit of perfect individual expression. In other words, there must be little or no conflict, no competition, no overlapping, no waste, in the enormous charitable activity of a great city. The associated charities attempts to furnish those necessary integrating services whereby a unified, concerted action is possible among all the charities of a city. The department store is a combination or integration of several specialized trades,— the butcher's, the baker's, and the candlestick-maker's,— all brought into co-operation by the synthetic methods of the large mercantile establishment. The charities of a city are a horde of eleemosynary activities, each of which is carefully specialized; but, without the associated movement which introduces into the field of charities the department store methods, there is almost no co-operation, and, in consequence, the institutions fail to attain the maximum of their usefulness.

In the specialized heterogeneity there are relief societies, children's societies, legal and protective societies, hospitals and dispensaries and homes of unnumbered varieties, spread at random over the entire city. Without the associated charities we should depend upon these various specialized societies to refer to other specialized societies applications for aid. Even in a department store, where all is simpler because under one roof, there would be great confusion, were it not for the man who meets us at the door and directs us accurately to the department we are seeking. Among the charities, where the complications are greater, and the applicants often very ignorant,

in order to give efficiency to our entire machinery, we must have one central agency, with branch offices in all parts of the city, which will provide information and guidance to the aged, the crippled, the deaf, the blind, and all others in distress.

Besides desiring this administrative work of the charity organization society, the settlements also demanded that the relief to the poor should be swift, adequate, and beneficent. They argued that the whole charitable system, in order to possess these qualities, must be simple enough to be used by any inexperienced person interested in a poor family or by the very ignorant and unacquainted poor themselves. If there is a family in want, it is absolutely necessary for some one to seek out among the various charities the particular one, two, or three societies which are especially adapted to give the help required. Under our present arrangement a poor family must be sent from building to building and from charity to charity. If the poor person has no car-fare, and is very hungry or perhaps old and crippled, the necessary effort to make even an application is almost beyond him. Many poor applicants have been known who, after being sent from place to place for days, have returned to their homes heart-sick and empty-handed. Many good people connected with charities do not realize the cruelty which often results from a careless referring of the poor from place to place.

The cause of all this trouble, as the settlements maintain, is, first of all, the extreme and necessary specialization of our present-day charitable work, and, second, the impossibility of any person of ordinary knowledge of the charities using the machinery with certainty and rapidity. The charities are so many, and the technicalities guarding the expenditure of their resources so numerous, that business men who subscribe thousands of dollars yearly to them often find it impossible to use these charities with despatch.

It is surely clear, the settlements said, that, before we can gain in any real sense the best results from millions of dollars spent in charity, we must have a directive agency, some organization that corresponds to the elevator boy or to the one who stands at the door of a department store. The need — the greatest need of all — is a central agency where all the poor may apply. Such an agency can inquire into the situation immediately and thoroughly, and the case can be referred to the proper relief sources with the certainty that it will receive the necessary treatment. To satisfy this great need

for a directive central agency is one of the objects of the associated charities movement.

In brief, the first and most practical demands of settlements upon the charity organization society were that relief work should be done quickly and well; second, that the charity organization society should be a ready and accurate instrument for using all the charities in the city; and, third, that the relief work should not fail to profit by the various lessons which the English students of pauperism have bequeathed to the present-day work of relief. These are the minimum demands of the settlement movement upon charity organization.

There were requirements which charity organization placed upon settlements quite as important from its point of view. In the immediate field of relief work the charity organization society protests against gush and sentimentality, which so often are exhibited by the immature and untrained residents of the settlement. In the earlier days of the settlement movement such emotional display was undoubtedly much more common than at present; but even to-day, in those settlements where the workers are shifting, and where each year a number of young people just from college come into residence, the desire to relieve every one's needs immediately, generously, and without question is not infrequently evidenced. The charity organization society, therefore, never fails to urge the settlements to co-operate with them closely on their district committees, and to watch the methods of the charity organization society with care and continuity. The lesson which the charity organization society constantly presses upon settlement residents is that relief should be careful, that it should be considerate, and that it should be administered so as to uplift instead of to degrade. Overlapping on the part of the settlements is keenly censured, and friendly service on the part of settlement residents is always sought for.

Having lived in settlements all of the time I have worked in the charity organization society, I have had opportunity to know many workers in both movements. I have observed what seems to me to be a striking difference in temperament between the people who live in settlements and the paid workers of the Charity Organization Society. There are exceptions in each movement; but my experience has led me to believe that, as a rule, the philosophy of "Don't, don't!" has so affected the will of many of the charity

organization society workers that, in their attitude toward reform movements, they have developed into what, for want of a better name, may be called the Hamlet type. The agent is always pondering whether "to do or not to do." He is hesitant over every activity. Suffering is before him, starvation about him. He longs to give adequate, generous, and immediate relief: but before him always rise the warnings, Be careful of pauperism, give no relief if you can help it, destroy no man's independence. It seems to me that no such hard requirements in the matter of delicately balancing the right and the wrong are placed upon any other persons as those placed upon the well-trained worker in the charity organization society. On the other hand, the activities of the settlement have fewer pauperizing dangers and the workers may easily fall into an unbounded enthusiasm. They see a thousand things to do, and are troubled less often by the moral questionings which afflict the visitor of the charity organization society. They soon have a fellowship with the people about them, and feel that as much as possible should be done for their neighbors, not necessarily in a charitable way, but in the way of social reforms, and in work of various kinds which one finds to do. The settlement resident is apt to approach the Don Quixote type. He is constantly doing, urging; he is constantly pressing forward, occasionally tilting at windmills, at times making mistakes, often, perhaps, doing injury, but filled with earnestness and warmth and purpose, and with not too much of question. Perhaps the most important reason for the settlement and the charity organization society not co-operating more closely is to be found in this temperamental difference. Each in a certain way values and appreciates the work of the other; but the habits of their minds are different, their thoughts take different directions, and the work of their lives is incited by widely different stimuli.

However, the practical demands of a purely immediate character, which are made by either of these social movements upon the other, is not to my mind the most important phase of the subject under discussion. I believe that there is a very vague feeling common throughout the settlements, and not uncommon among the workers of the charity organization society, that there is a larger work to be done than has yet been accomplished by either of these reform efforts. They point to the work of Charles Booth, who several years ago showed so clearly the conditions of poverty, and the extent of it,

and the impossibility of doing anything to really improve the conditions of the great mass of poor by the efforts to which the charity organization society and settlements have in general confined themselves. Rowntree, in his recent investigation of the conditions in York, England, has again wakened us to this broad social conception of poverty. Approximately, 30 per cent. of the people in London and in the villages of England, and perhaps in the cities of America, are foredoomed to live in that restricted class which may now be almost scientifically called "the poor." There are families whose total earnings are insufficient to obtain the minimum necessaries for the maintenance of a merely physical efficiency; and other families whose total earnings, if wisely and carefully spent, will only supply these requirements. Speaking of Class B in Mr. Charles Booth's classification of the people of London, Mr. John A. Hobson, the English economist, says: "Here is a class unable by their utmost efforts to obtain such regular wage as will afford any security of decent animal existence; disabled by their bringing up and by the whole industrial condition of their life from getting remunerative work or from doing such work if they could get it; compelled to live and bring up their families under conditions which preclude the possibility of a sound mind in a sound body. All endeavors to deal with these people in their existing economic environment, and to make them religious, moral, intellectual, or even cleanly, are little else than wanton misdirection of reform energy, attempts to solve higher problems before lower ones, attempts to grow the ripe flowers of civilization before we have grown the stalk, or even furnished soil out of which the stalk may grow.

"This waste of energy is due to careless, or sometimes wilful neglect of the order of the evolution of human wants. It may of course be possible sometimes to stimulate, and even to satisfy, wants in individuals out of their healthy natural order; moral miracles may be performed in slum life; 'forcing' is possible in the growth of human beings, as of plants; but it is always a wasteful and weakening process. The second economical disposition of reform energy in dealing with Class B will involve, first, a concentrated attention to the industrial supports of its evil material environment, the questions of low wages, irregularity and insufficiency of employment, the housing problem, and the several aspects of 'sweating.' The various philanthropic energies thrown into spirit-

ual and moral work among this class would gain each its particular object far more effectively if its possessors recognized the historical priority of the economic problems, and concentrated first on their solution, reserving their specific forms of higher missionary work for those social grades where these specific needs were just beginning to emerge in the development of life.

"There may be some who think that this view errs by representing the slum-dweller too much as the slave of his environment, and are disposed to insist that education and moral stimulus applied to individual members of Class B may induce them to make a successful effort to improve their own material and economic condition. To such I would reply, first, that such cases constitute the 'moral miracles' to which reference is already made, and their rare existence abates but slightly the waste of reform energy; and, second, that the ability of one or any individual to get out of his class no more implies the ability of the whole class, or any considerable proportion of a class, to get out of its condition than the fact that any boy in America is able to become President of the United States implies the ability of all the boys living at any given time to attain this position. To impute this power to a class involves a total misunderstanding of the nature of individual and class competition in industrial society."

One can hardly believe that charity organization societies will much longer restrict their activities to the narrow field which they have generally occupied heretofore. To be sure, in divers places, at various times, a charity organization society has undertaken preventive work; but an inquiry now and then, a public bath or nursery, hardly constitutes a broad policy in that direction. To me there seem to be strong evidences throughout the country that we are moving toward a far more radical and thorough handling of the question of poverty. The members of our boards and councils have been brought much nearer an intelligent comprehension of the economic and industrial problems than any one looking forward a quarter of a century could have foreseen. Some charity organization society boards are still narrow, and for some time yet may desire to pursue a policy of dealing with poverty only through those cases of distress which appeal for assistance at the offices of the society. Some boards of the charity organization societies, however, certainly could at present combine with the settlements to do far more effective work in dealing with the whole problem of poverty.

There are two phases of the broader problem which should be undertaken by the people who are at the present time interested in charity organization and the settlement movement. There is no question but that some boards will claim that it is not the work of the charity organization society to do more than handle the various cases of distress which make application to them. On the other hand, it may be asked them, If it is not the duty of the charity organization society, whose duty is it to bring to the attention of all the people those social causes which are bringing the people to need? And who else but the charity organization society should undertake to deal with the whole problem? Surely, some specialized society, such as a relief organization, a nurses' society, a hospital, or other such organization, cannot undertake to do anything in this broader field.

This is not a radical innovation in the work of these two organizations. I believe upon proper consideration it will be found that we have already been rapidly tending toward this enlarged field of activity. Mr. Robert A. Woods has long been urging the charity organization society to stop using edged tools and cruel, repressive measures upon that inefficient, inebriate, and immoral class which frequents the lowest dives of our cities. He has already shown the folly of such effort, and has preached a more enlightened policy in dealing with these people. For many years individuals here and there have urged that the degenerate and the permanently defective classes of the community should be segregated so as to prevent propagation. Now and then we have heard great numbers of people pleading for a more gentle and humane care for those helpless members of the community who have lived lives of usefulness, but who, when age or illness or other misfortune has overtaken them, have no other prospect than to suffer along in a slow process of starvation until they die. Surely, the charity organization society and the settlements have long since tacitly agreed that there should be a most active and vigorous campaign for gentle and kindly care for the aged, the insane, the feeble-minded, and the epileptic. Have they not also agreed that efforts should be made to cure, as far as possible, and to re-establish in the community to as great an extent as possible, all of those who are inebriate, tubercular, crippled, diseased, and those, too, who are blind, deaf and dumb, and temporarily helpless? No one who has read the reports of the

various Conferences of Charities and Corrections can doubt that there is a very definite opinion on this subject. Many have urged that there should be correctional and educational treatment for tramps and beggars, for the inefficient, the incapable, the shiftless, the perverted, and the pauperized elements of our community.

This, then, is one line of activity upon which there could be a combination and co-operation between these two great movements. It is, in a way, a social dredging process, but a process upon which we are all so thoroughly agreed that a vigorous and active campaign might be undertaken to stir up the interest of the community in its behalf. The work of charity organization can hardly be said to have commenced when we find all over the country epileptics, the feeble-minded, and the harmless insane living unprotected in the community, at the mercy of sporadic private charity. No one can doubt that we have hardly made a beginning when we see the aged poor disgracefully neglected, the blind begging in every one of our large cities, and the vicious, incapable, and inefficient persons living in our "Tenderloin" districts, and making those portions of our cities hideous with vice and all forms of perverted sexuality. This work, as I see it, largely confines itself to dealing with Classes A and B, according to Mr. Booth's classification, and occasionally to assist certain individuals in Class C.

The settlements will surely combine with the charity organization society in its efforts to bring about a more enlightened policy in dealing with the obviously dependent and defective classes in the community. The charity organization society will surely co-operate and assist the settlements in whatever preventive efforts they make in behalf of Class D. The work of settlements is confined largely to the latter class, and only in so far as the settlements co-operate with trades-unions may it be said to influence in any important way Classes E and F. With Class D there are several preventive measures upon which the settlements and charity organization should combine their efforts. The questions of housing, sanitation, of encouraging insurance features, of doing away with child labor and sweat-shop conditions, injurious trades and insanitary workshops, are all of such immediate importance as to form the basis for active and encouraging preventive work in behalf of Class D. This may seem a radical suggestion; but I believe, if consideration is given to it, that we shall be found to have advanced farther than we realize.

In New York City the settlements and the charity organization society have already co-operated warmly in bringing about an important reform which will do much to prevent poverty. Several years ago, in New York, Mr. Lawrence Veiller, at one time resident in a settlement, believing that the most serious question affecting the lives and welfare of the working people was the matter of housing, sought to form a separate Improved Housing Association to investigate conditions and to carry through necessary reforms in that field. The present secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society dissuaded him from organizing a separate association, and instead instituted a Special Committee on Tenement-house Reform. As a result of this wisdom and breadth of view, charity organization took the most important step that it has ever taken in the history of the organization, to deal in a preventive way with some of the most distressing conditions which afflict Class D.

Recently a settlement worker proposed to Mr. Devine that the charity organization society organize a committee to investigate the conditions which were propagating tuberculosis. Mr. Devine, after considering the matter and seeing how fertile a cause of poverty tuberculosis is, decided to form a committee of the Charity Organization Society, and to begin active measures for a crusade against this disease.

As a beginning, these two vigorous and fundamental measures undertaken by the charity organization society, encouraged and assisted by the settlements, are of immense importance. They may, perhaps, mark an epoch in this country in the policy of philanthropic organizations. We have long talked about striking at the causes of poverty; we have, even as long ago as the forties and fifties, done something to awaken the public to certain social causes of poverty; but the work of the foremost settlements, and the two recent movements of the charity organization society in New York for housing reform and for the control of tuberculosis, mark a new era in philanthropic work.

These two organizations, which are so much out of touch in London, and which are without co-operation pursuing their devious paths, have, it seems to me, tremendous common opportunities in America, where we understand each other, where we respect each other, and where we are willing to co-operate and assist each other in every possible way. The charity organization society, because of the very

nature of its activities, is very likely to spend a great part of its time in dealing with the individual causes of poverty. The settlements are likely to spend their time in viewing and preventing, as far as is possible, the social causes of poverty. It will be a pity if movements which so supplement each other as these two movements plainly do should not co-operate closely in so far as their two fields of effort overlap. There are things which the charity organization society must do which I have not mentioned. There are multitudes of things which the settlements must do that I have not mentioned. But in segregating the irredeemable portions of the community, and in the various forms of preventive work with Class D, the settlements and the charity organization society should co-operate in a new and larger handling of the problem of poverty than either has undertaken until recently or can now undertake singly.

XII.

The Treatment of Criminals.

THE TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL.

BY J. W. WILLIS, CHAIRMAN.

"Die Weisheit ist nur in der Wahrheit."— *Goethe.*

The subject assigned to this committee requires us to consider the relation of society and the duty of society toward human beings who have committed public wrongs inhibited by express legal enactment. The prevention of crime and criminal law reform are subjects which under present limitations do not come within our province. We are called upon to discuss the relative propriety of measures suggested in various quarters for the relief of the social state from its assailants and from those persons who are delinquent in the discharge of social duties as defined by the supreme authority of kingdom or of commonwealth. Since every criminal marks himself by his conduct as an enemy of social order, of peace, thrift, security of proprietary tenure, and all else that society holds dear, we must ever hold in view the delicacy of our task, since, while representing society in our treatment of the present theme, we occupy the post of one who judges his own enemy. It is not easy to be just when conscious of a sense of injury. Difficulties bestrew the path of him who would safely philosophize when called upon to fix the human destiny of his own assailant, spoliator, or traducer. Here the doctrine of human fraternity and the holy decrees of Christian charity come to our aid; and, recognizing the former and bowing in complete submission to the latter, we undertake our appointed task.

As has been well stated by our learned and able associate, Mr. Stonaker, of Denver, Col., society cannot properly deal with the criminal until it has learned completely the real nature and characteristics of the criminal. The disciple of Hippocrates or of Hahne-

mann must be able to diagnose the physical infirmities of a human being before he can give them efficacious treatment. Correct diagnosis depends upon a knowledge of anatomy and physiology, and the effects of certain materials and certain acts operating thereon. By a parity of reasoning, unless we fully comprehend what the criminal really is, we cannot supply an adequate remedy for the evils which afflict him, and through his agency work disaster to the human race.

We should therefore welcome the scientific investigations in the realm of criminal anthropology which have been so diligently prosecuted by Lombroso and others. We should insist that all persons intrusted with the care or supervision of criminals shall make a study of the nature and characteristics of criminals, and of what has been written about them, and shall keep a record and make public reports of their own personal observations. The kindred sciences of criminology and penology have not yet reached perfection. Indeed, it may well be said that they have only arrived at the primal stage of mere adolescence. This fact imposes upon penologists the obligation of being modest rather than dogmatic, and suggests the imperative necessity for untiring research. Having in view the comparatively limited stock of knowledge concerning the criminal which the world has hitherto acquired, we must apply that knowledge to the conception and execution of our plans for his treatment. The object to be attained is regarded by the common mind as simply the infliction upon an offender of punishment which shall constitute retribution, as far as he is concerned, and shall serve as a potential warning to others who may be tempted to follow his wayward course. This view of the case leaves out of sight the interests of the offender. He is treated as a negligible quantity. So great are the resentment and disgust which his career has awakened in the popular mind that society seems to feel a common impulse to regard him as wholly without desert, as one to whom society owes nothing and as a futile claimant for recognition in any decent sphere of social action.

Here the enlightened reformer must place himself in an attitude of steadfast opposition to the popular opinion, and is in duty bound to be controversial until he successfully controverts. The best interests, the true welfare of the criminal, are inseparably bound up with those of society. Perchance, in this connection, we may well invoke

the Socratic method. Let us suppose current penological fallacy to be exploited by a man named Sciolist, who says,—

"This talk about the reformation of criminals seems to me, Socrates, utter nonsense."

Socrates replies: "Do you expect, then, that your fellow-man who has committed a public offence, and has been duly incarcerated, will cease to exist at the date when his confinement shall have terminated?"

Sciolist: "No, Socrates, verily, I do not."

Socrates: "You admit, therefore, that, when the convict has served his allotted term of imprisonment, he is to become a free man, to be permitted to roam at large and enter into social relations. Now can you reconcile with a just ideal of civic duty the liberation of an evil person from the custodial supervision of the government and his return to the status of a free social being."

Sciolist: "Well, that view of the case raises a serious question."

Socrates: "Having the power to do otherwise, would it not be quite as culpable to restore to freedom of social intercourse a man of depravity, proven to be such, as it would be to create such a being, and to allow him unreserved intercourse with humanity in general?"

Sciolist: "Most assuredly. I perceive, Socrates, that society, for its own sake, for the defence of the state, and to subserve the public good, must take adequate measures to reform the criminal, and to retain control of him until he is fit to act the part of a virtuous and law-abiding man."

No candid discussion upon the subject can end in any other conclusion. As action and reaction are always equal in the material universe, so every act of every social being has its influence upon every other member of society. The morale or want of morale of each individual may be likened to a leaven which tends to disseminate itself throughout the whole social mass. All immoral leaven should be purged out of every community. Ignoring or concealing filth never created good sanitary conditions. The community cannot afford to quarantine offenders in public prisons for a definite term and then liberate them, unpurified, to spread moral contagion broadcast.

The purely utilitarian view of the necessity for the reformation of the criminal is supplemented by the designs of the philanthropist and the Christian. Not ignoring, but rejoicing because of the great

good to the community at large achieved by infusing new moral life into the penal captive, he is exalted by the generous enthusiasm of a righteous soul contemplating the rise of the ignoble to a better estate, the rescue of a human being from the slavery of immoral traits, the regeneration and elevation of his fellow-man!

Many of our friends who have not considered the subject with care think that, because we, who have given the subjects of prison reform and the treatment of criminals a somewhat careful study, lay great stress upon the reformation of the erring, therefore, we are proposing to destroy the deterrent influence which the harshness of old-time prison methods was considered to exert. This view is erroneous. The convict whose crime is largely the result of ignorance or of an outburst of passion does not represent that class of persons who are deterred from crime by statutory mechanism created and operated *in terrorem*. For them the reformatory method is the only just form of punishment conceivable. They require an opportunity for reflection, penance, and instruction. Theirs is a mental and moral deficiency, and not a morbid development of all that is base and immoral. *Per contra*, the villain, crime-stained and crime-hardened, dissolute and depraved, reckless and defiant, represents a class afflicted with a sad deterioration of moral principle and an abnormal viciousness. To him vice is dear, virtue abhorrent. To reform means to him a surrender of all that seems to make life precious. While typical criminals look with aversion upon the old-fashioned penal institution, they regard with emotions akin to horror an institution designed for human reformation. They are wont to endure with comparative equanimity the penitentiary of former days, with its massive gates and locks, cell-houses and barred windows, its treadmill tasks and coarse provender. When a term of imprisonment in such a place of detention had ended, they, as a general rule, emerged from its gates with a self-satisfied opinion that they had paid the penalty for their respective crimes as they would pay the score at a tavern; that accounts had been settled between them and the state, and that the somewhat unpleasant episode of prison seclusion should not constitute any bar to further activity in the service of the arch-demon. The chairman of this committee, while engaged in judicial labors, had occasion to note frequently the openly expressed preference of desperate criminals for a sentence to the state prison rather than to the state reformatory, and their pref-

erence for a "straight-out-and-out sentence" to the former institution rather than a sentence thereto "upon the reformatory plan."

If it should be held that the chief object of a prison is to operate as a "terror to evil-doers," then the reformatory would take the grand prize in any competition.

A broad and practical view of penological problems must therefore require us to reach the conclusion that the interest of the state and that of the criminal may be best subserved by the *reformation* of all whose liberty has been forfeited by reason of having committed crime. In past times, imprisonment has often degraded the convict; and thus the guardianship of public authority over him has made him a worse social element than before. The state, the supreme representative of organized society, the trustee of humanity's welfare, the dispenser of justice and of mercy, cannot afford to impair its dignity, nor sully the prestige which it might otherwise proudly maintain, by knowingly committing any mean or ungenerous act. To suggest the contrary is an insult to the majesty of the people who ordain and control government. No more can it be supposed that an enlightened state will undertake remedial processes for the extirpation of crime which experience has shown to be futile, nor linger long at the doorway of Truth when Science bids welcome and urges entrance. To pursue false penological methods is to beat the air,—a proceeding more in keeping with the character of Falstaff than with that of the princely hero of Agincourt.

Granted that we must reform the criminal, how shall we best reach that desirable result? The material upon which we are to work is debased humanity. Its characteristics are, in general, the possession of false ideas, abnormal emotions, morbid ambitions, restlessness, selfishness in extravagant measure, egotism, suspiciousness and distrust, want of patriotism or civic zeal, extreme sensuality, predatory instincts, cruelty, mendacity, instability of purpose, laziness, intemperance, and shiftlessness. Oft-times the criminal is, also, ignorant; but the statistics of recent times tend toward proof of the proposition that mental training, according to ordinary educational methods, does not diminish crime. A well-informed head is not infrequently associated with a bad heart. In many of the prisons of the older communities a majority of the prisoners can manipulate the traditional "three R's" with a good degree of facility.

Your committee is fully convinced that the infirmities of human

nature which are the causes of crime are twofold,— erroneous ideals and deficiency of volition. The criminal has no lofty ideals. He is an illustration of the Scriptural declaration, "To be carnally-minded is death." His redemption from the domination of evil must be wrought out upon the principle also enunciated in the sacred Scriptures: "To be spiritually-minded is life." Milton's impressive statement of the all-governing power of mind has never been disputed.

> "The mind is its own place, and in itself
> Can make a heav'n of hell, a hell of heav'n."

Deprivation of opportunity to do evil, training the idler into a skilled artisan, setting aright the physique, are all excellent aids in accomplishing reformation; but yet more must be done. Evil principles must be banished. Sound morality must be inculcated. Moral principles must not be merely presented and cordially recommended for adoption, but must be successfully taught. Half-way measures in this regard would be intolerable. The criminal under reformatory influences should be subjected, from time to time, to practical tests of his moral condition; and upon the result of such tests should depend his restoration to liberty. We believe, therefore, that every penal institution should be conducted with a view to the actual, practical, and complete reformation of the human beings committed to its charge, that it should be a school of ethical culture from which no pupil should be permitted to emerge without a degree. That degree ought to be hedged about with such restrictions and requirements as to make it signify complete moral regeneration. Acceptance of this last proposition necessarily carries with it the further conclusion that no penal sentences ought to be imposed save such as may be terminated in only one way,— by the complete exemplification on the part of the convict of his ability and determination to lead a life of industry and morality. The *Indeterminate Sentence* must be the governing policy of the future as regards the judgment rendered in criminal causes. All other forms of penalty for crime having proved inefficient, its advent and adoption will signalize an advancement from the shadows of experiment to the sunlight of success, the triumph of reason over prejudice, of the practical over the futile.

To profess the utilization of imprisonment as a remedy for crime, as a means of effacing criminal propensities, and to attempt this by

committing convicts to prisons for a definite, fixed term, resembles the folly which would be perpetrated by the director of a hospital who should, at the inception of an attack of illness, appoint a definite period of medical treatment for the person afflicted. There is a close analogy between hospitals where physical ailments are treated and a prison instituted and conducted upon scientific penological principles. If our contemporaries cannot be led to take this view of the subject, our successors upon the stage of human activity surely will.

Considering a prison, then, as a hospital for the cure of criminal tendencies, a hospital designed to benefit, in a large and generous sense, both the inmates thereof, and, also, society as a whole, what shall be the course of treatment? We desire to place upon the record our belief that the moral degeneracy which denotes the criminal has its roots in that energizing and all-directing force which we call the soul. A criminal is the victim of soul-corruption. For that reason has the mind, at once the perceptive and creative agent of the soul, become darkened and distorted. Our hospital reformatory method must, upon scientific principles, strike at the basis, the poison-cyst, of the malady. That eradicated, and its surroundings thoroughly purified, the battle is won.

The effective curative process must be such as to appeal to the soul. It must introduce the convict to a new world of thought and emotion, and therein lead him onward through a course of gradual but emphatic and forceful soul-culture until moral regeneration shall have been accomplished.

The baleful ideas which have governed the malefactor must be purged out by proving to him their absolute fallacy and folly. Ideas of virtue and of wholesome industry must be implanted. Being a man, he must be dealt with upon a rational basis; for the hope of reclamation rests largely upon the proposition that human life possesses, as a birthright, a dignity which makes its restoration to the loser a most worthy task, and the regaining of it a precious boon. None of the high ethical rules which are pointed out to him as being of supreme obligation should be violated in the treatment which he is accorded. He must be dealt with firmly yet kindly, sternly yet justly. His forcible segregation from the mass of humanity and the punitive tasks and disciplinary regulations imposed upon him must be demonstrated to him to be like the harsh consequences which

Nature visits upon transgressions of her immutable laws, not designed in malice nor executed for purposes of revenge, but brought upon the convict by his own lawless course of life and administered with a view to the accomplishment of a benevolent purpose, his own regeneration.

You will notice that we affirm the need of remedial training for both the mental and the emotional nature. Both natures are inherent properties of man. To disregard his emotional functions and manifestations will render any method of reforming criminals lifeless, inept, and nugatory.

Any system of education, to be perfect, must draw out, utilize, and develop all the faculties of man's complex nature. These faculties are the intellectual, the moral, the emotional, and, to crown all, the spiritual. In the education of either the child or the adult, the normal or the abnormal human being, the harmless or the criminal individual none of the great constituent human faculties should be neglected. We must recognize that the material upon which penological effort must be expended is not a mere animal, but man, sentient, rational, God-created man; and we shall waste our efforts unless they shall be wisely adapted to the subject to be acted upon by our moral therapeutics. The grandest human character is that in which the spiritual nature is most highly developed. We all acknowledge this. Nevertheless, the penological methods of the past have been mostly such as would be adopted merely for the safe-keeping of wild beasts and the training of them into an aptitude for the mechanical performance of certain physical evolutions. Away with all this! Let the programme be one of soul-exaltation, and not of mere retribution and temporary repression. We hold in our hands the garnered results of nineteen centuries of civilization. Every successive decade bears witness, as did Tennyson, to the fact that . . . . . "— the thoughts of men are widen'd with the process of the suns." To all that the nineteenth century has done in material works and ways must now and hereafter be added the amelioration which the race cries for impatiently, not with hunger for bread, but with a heart-hunger not to be appeased save by messages of love and fraternity borne along the dewy path of truth and righteousness by the angel form of a glorified humanity. The message must be ratified and its fruition assured by the sovereign people whose aim is to rule America for the highest good of all mankind. The message must come

with vivifying force to the criminal as well as to others. To him it must assure temporal salvation. If he be so obdurate as to resist the sway of the reform idea and the reform method, then he must be given to understand that the alternative is continuous segregation from the companionship of his fellow-mortals. The policy of the indeterminate sentence, the decree of state, "Stay in prison until cured and cleansed of crime," will solve the problem of the recidivist and obviate the necessity for that makeshift of modern legislation styled "The habitual criminal's act."

In order to make the prison, when transformed into a college of ethics, a successful enterprise, the state should summon to her aid and utilize all the agencies that minister to human advancement. The teacher must bring his treasures to enrich the mind, the scientist and the physician must make environment sanitary and health secure, the physical system must be invigorated, the ability for useful labor and inclination thereto engendered, and the holy counsels of religion must be availed of as the supreme instrumentality for arousing all that is noblest and best in the spiritual nature. Thus by a policy of "sweetness and light," conceived in altruism and executed with firmness, tenacity, and enlightened zeal, will society restrain and redeem the criminal, and, instead of smiting him with the hand of vengeance, will disarm him and transform him by a power far mightier than any hitherto invoked.

XIII.

Politics and Charity.

POLITICAL PATRONAGE IN STATE INSTITUTIONS.

BY HON. WILLIAM DUDLEY FOULKE,

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

The system of political patronage is everywhere destructive of good government; but nowhere are its results more hideous and revolting than in charitable institutions, and particularly in those devoted to the care of the insane. About fifteen years ago I had an intimate personal knowledge of these results in connection with the Indiana Hospital for the Insane. In that particular instance the evils were committed by the Democratic administration, but I wish to disclaim any partisan feeling in respect to such matters. I am perfectly conscious that the spoils system is not one whit better when carried on by Republicans.

The act under which the hospital was operated was passed by a party vote in the Indiana legislature when I was a member of that body. The board of trustees was elected by the General Assembly; and it was intended that places should be given for political reasons, and that party men only should receive appointments. No examination was held to ascertain the fitness of persons appointed. Legislative influence was courted by the selection of many relatives and friends of members of the legislature belonging to the party in power. One Senator secured the appointment of a daughter, a nephew, and three nieces, besides a number of his friends. Letters were written by the trustees to various members of the General Assembly, asking them to send some one to the asylum for appointment. Boone County, where the president of the board resided, sent nineteen em-

ployees. The traffic in place was reduced to a system, and carried on to such an extent as to become a public scandal. Favors were reciprocated between the trustees and the members of the legislature. Many of the employees were found so grossly incompetent that they were obliged to leave. Men were chosen even for the place of physician without special qualifications or previous experience. The employees were active political workers. Subscriptions were circulated among them, and funds raised for the campaign. The politics of Wayne Township, Marion County, where the hospital was located, were largely controlled by them in selecting delegates to party conventions. An active agitation was maintained among them in respect to factional fights then raging within the party. On the day of a Congressional convention the hospital was almost deserted. Additional places were made, that political workers might be supplied with positions. The storekeeper had politicians foisted upon him as assistants until it took three men to do the work of one. Those who furnished most of the supplies for the asylum were prominent politicians. A former candidate for governor and a former treasurer of state sold hogs to the asylum; and the most successful bidder was the candidate for clerk of the county, a man who afterward fled from the state on account of his defalcations.

The results were such as might have been expected,— careless and unbusiness-like methods pervading the entire organization, with much favoritism, corruption, and inefficiency, and constantly recurring cases of neglect and cruelty toward the inmates. One trustee was present at only one meeting of the board for about six months, being meanwhile engaged in managing a saw-mill in Arkansas; but his salary went on just the same. The board forgot to adopt a code of by-laws, as required by law, for nearly three years. Continual changes among the employees were made by the trustees. At one meeting the discharge of eleven was ordered, shortly after this three more, then fourteen, etc., until the superintendent protested that he could not make the changes without injury to the hospital. But his protest was disregarded, and the changes went on. Out of 336 employees more than four-fifths were changed during the first three years of the administration.

The system of bids for contracts was arranged so that a single bid included many different kinds of articles; and, while the contract was given to the lowest bidder for the aggregate amount, yet

the quantities of the different articles were afterward changed, so that the favored contractor supplied more of the things upon which his bid was highest, and thereby got a better price. Inferior articles were accepted, until the superintendent asked in his report, "By what law is the superintendent compelled to sign vouchers as being correct when he cannot know, neither having made the contracts nor having inspected the goods?" A local politician who got most of the contracts had, under a previous administration, furnished oleomargarine for creamery butter, and the board had refused to pay his claim; but he made war upon those who had disallowed it, lobbied for a new bill and new trustees, and then got the claim paid. Other responsible contractors were crowded out, while this favorite supplied pretty much anything he chose; and, although the superintendent reported that others would supply the goods at nearly one-half less, he still continued to furnish them. The supplies were of the most atrocious quality. I was chairman of a committee which made an examination of the hospital, and the day we were there butter infested with maggots was hidden away in a sewer under the storeroom to avoid our inspection. The hogs sold to the asylum were diseased. One lot were death-stricken when delivered at the hospital, and began to die rapidly; but still slaughtering went on for the tables. It was neck and neck between disease and the butcher's knife. The daily reports of subsistence showed that the articles furnished for the tables were abominable.

Political heelers were appointed to take care of the insane, and these afflicted creatures were abused and beaten with great inhumanity. A gentleman whose son was in the hospital saw one of the patients crawling on his hands and knees along a line of other patients, when a man came up and kicked him severely on the side several times, the attendant looking on and not interfering. Other inmates were teased and tormented for the mere purpose of making fun of them. As a result of mistreatment, several lost their lives. The superintendent sought to secure necessary reforms in these particulars, but the board would not allow it.

At last these abuses were thoroughly ventilated in the public press, the matter became a political issue, and the party under whose management they had existed was defeated in the election of the lower branch of the General Assembly. Investigations were ordered; but the board, after their misdeeds had been published and exposed, pro-

cured the appointment of a Senate committee for the purpose of exonerating themselves. The investigation was taken away from the Committee on Benevolent Institutions, to which it belonged, and consigned to a special body appointed by the presiding officer of the Senate, who had been a personal beneficiary of the corrupt system. The committee was composed in part of other beneficiaries, among whom was a relative of one of the members of the board; and a majority of the committee had been supporters of the original bill under which this partisan system was established. The result was two reports, one by the House committee exposing the corruption, and one by the Senate committee defending it. The people of the state, however, had become greatly aroused; and some time later these unworthy trustees were compelled to relinquish their offices. I was the defendant in two libel suits for revealing these iniquities. One was brought by the president of the board, and another by a corrupt contractor; but it is needless to remark that the suits were dismissed before trial.

It is easy to say that the illustration given of the results of the spoils system is an extreme case. Perhaps it is, but these results naturally came from a system which regarded the places in the asylum and the contracts for its maintenance as being the reward of political activity rather than a trust for the benefit of the wards of the state.

The boards in charge of the insane hospitals in Indiana are composed at present of members of both political parties, and such abuses as those described do not now exist. But even this remedy is a very imperfect one, *unless it is also combined with a system of selecting subordinates which insures their appointment on account of reasons which are non-political.* The only sure reform is one which provides, not that the employees and subordinate places shall be divided between the parties, but that they shall be selected upon competitive tests of fitness without reference to parties at all.

It is my conviction that the use of a great benevolent institution for partisan purposes is contrary to the common law, and that officers who thus prostitute their power can be removed. Coke, Comyns, Story, and other eminent jurists all hold that, if an officer removes a meritorious subordinate arbitrarily, it is good ground of impeachment. Madison said that this was a high crime within the meaning of the Constitution. It is certainly misfeasance in office.

In Rex against Williams, 3 Burr. 1317, where certain justices refused a license because the person applying would not give his vote for members of Parliament as the justices would have it, Lord Mansfield sustained an indictment on account of the corrupt reasons for such refusal. If it were more generally known that public officers are subject to removal for making appointments for political reasons, irrespective of merit, the cause of civil service reform would be greatly promoted.

PARTISAN APPOINTMENTS TO INSTITUTIONS FOR THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

BY JAMES L. BLAIR, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Partisan appointment to public office is a mere euphemistic term for the "spoils system." It would be a mere waste of time to argue before any intelligent body of persons that this system is iniquitous in its conception and utterly infamous in its application to all public institutions. Even the advocates of partisan appointments will not pretend that fitness should not be the first consideration; but they are accustomed to say that there are always sufficiently fit men in the dominant party, and consequently they never look beyond party lines for appointees. In practice, therefore, the result is exactly the same as if they openly advocated the "spoils system" in its entirety.

That system is so condemned by its own record, so notoriously destructive of good government, and so demoralizing to public officials, and, moreover, its evils are so universally recognized that it would be a mere work of supererogation to attempt to add to the well-merited odium in which it is generally held. But it is a fact well recognized by observers of current events that, notwithstanding its inherent evil and its general condemnation in theory, nevertheless, it is practically in operation in so many public institutions and departments that it is at the present time a matter of urgent moment. In other words, condemned in theory, it is yet the controlling factor in nearly all departments of government throughout the United States. Such being the fact, it is essential that those who, like the members of this conference, are devoting themselves to the cause of philan-

thropy, should point out to the public at large this condition of things, in order that the evils may be remedied. To that end I will speak, not upon the general theory, but upon some concrete instances where the theory is wholly ignored, and the practice of appointing officials for purely party reasons, without reference to special fitness, exists to such an extent and so flagrantly as to constitute a serious menace to the well-being of many, if not all, public eleemosynary institutions.

On the 31st of December, 1901, one of the St. Louis daily newspapers contained a statement that the board of managers of the state hospital for the insane at Fulton, Mo., met for the purpose of electing a superintendent and three assistant physicians; that, after a ballot, a superintendent and three assistants were chosen. Then follows in the notice this remarkable statement, "The object in selecting the superintendent and three assistant physicians at this meeting (to wit, December 31, 1901) was *to give them time to take a special course in neurology, and otherwise prepare themselves for the positions* to which they will be formally elected at the meeting of the board on March 14."

It is difficult to appreciate at once the profound significance of this incident. The Fulton Insane Asylum is one of the largest in the State of Missouri, containing hundreds of patients in all phases of insanity. It is obvious that the care of these inmates involves a knowledge and training specially adapted to the difficult and delicate problems arising in the care and treatment of the mentally defective; that in the whole range of human knowledge there is no specialty requiring more careful preparation, delicate perception, profound learning, and wide experience. And yet in this instance the board of management (appointed by the governor of the state) selected four men to take charge of this institution, confessedly ignorant of the special duties they were about to undertake; and then, with a naïveté which would be humorous, were it not tragic, we are told that these men are to take a preparatory course of two months and a half in neurology, to prepare themselves for their duties.

As a matter of fact, the four officials selected were country doctors, having about the average learning and experience found in persons of their vocation and limited opportunities.

To the skilled alienist, even to the layman of average intelligence, a proposition that a general practitioner of average experience and learning can in ten weeks fit himself for the grave and responsible

duties involved in the care of the insane, must appear as nothing less than a monstrous assumption based upon a confidence bred of ignorance and a fatuous folly which indicates a conscience deaf to the higher considerations of professional duty and humanity.

If we consider the case for a moment, it will appear that this is no exaggeration. The science of neurology, one of the most difficult, delicate, and profound specialties, is one to which the ablest men of modern times have given their whole lives to find that, the more extensive the investigation, the more far-reaching and important are its possibilities. After a hundred years, in which the brightest lights of the profession have given their best work to this science, it is felt by those who are most deeply versed in it that it is still in its infancy. The ablest, most experienced neurologist approaches each case of mental disease with a consciousness of helplessness due to the gravity of the subject and the inadequacy of science to grasp it in its entirety. Yet here are the state authorities willing to undertake the responsibility of placing four country doctors in charge of hundreds of defectives with only ten weeks' preparation, and the doctors themselves willing to assume this responsibility, which might well appall an angel, with a confidence which could exist only side by side with unspeakable ignorance.

Consider a little more in detail what this means. A patient suffering from melancholia may, by improper treatment, in a few weeks become incurably demented. An epileptic, improperly nourished and insufficiently stimulated mentally, will assuredly lose the benefit of his intellect during his lucid intervals, and become permanently defective. A case of acute dementia, easily remedied, perhaps, by prompt and intelligent treatment, may, through the ignorance of the superintendent, become chronic, and result in blotting out forever the mentality of a human being. A feeble-minded child, capable by proper treatment of development into useful citizenship, may, by unscientific treatment, lapse into the twilight of chronic mental debility. And so in every phase of these wondrous pathological phenomena, are countless opportunities for the rescue of a human mind, which, neglected, convict the incompetent in charge of "mind slaughter," a crime far worse than murder of the body.

So much for the professional aspect of this case. Now let us consider it from its political side, meaning by this term the partisan influences which surround it.

The governor of the State of Missouri is a Democrat of the "straightest sect." The state hospital board, which appointed these officials, is composed of five members, also Democrats, a majority of them active party workers. The superintending physician and the three assistants, selected by the extraordinary method above stated, are also Democrats.

The appointment of the superintendent was dictated by the governor. The assistants were appointed by the board upon purely personal or party grounds. It is just as well understood that all the subordinate appointments under the superintendent were to be parcelled out among the members of the board as official perquisites as if it were the written law of the land. Members of the board enjoyed more or less of this patronage according to their influence or lack of influence in the party. One of them, who happens to be a homœopathist and who goes by the derisive title of the "Little Pill Member," being regarded as rather a negligible quantity politically and professionally, was only allowed the appointment of one matron.

Such is the present organization of this institution. A recent visitor at the asylum was impressed by the fact that, although the premises are kept clean and the inmates appear to be treated with kindness and consideration, the whole theory of its management is nothing more than that it is an establishment for taking care of defectives; that medical or nutritive attention, of a character calculated to cure or alleviate mental disease, is a matter which enters very little, if at all, into the scheme of management. So far from being a scientifically conducted institution for the *cure* of those mentally deficient, it is merely a house of detention for the segregation of mental defectives and a proper attendance upon their ordinary physical wants.

This institution has had a singularly eventful and unfortunate history. Under a former governor the superintendent placed in charge, for strictly party reasons, so far from being a scientist, was utterly and notoriously devoid of technical skill and knowledge; and his management of the institution was characterized by total disregard for any except party considerations, the entire force of the asylum being used in local elections in aid of political protégés of the governor.

I have gone somewhat into particulars in reference to this institution because I am satisfied that it is typical, so far as concerns the

basis of appointment, of the other state institutions for the care of the insane. The whole policy of the present as well as the preceding administration is to regard those positions as the spoils of the victor, and special fitness for the duties of the office are and have been utterly and openly ignored.

This is also true in reference to the appointment by the present governor of the secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections. A short time ago the former secretary was removed by a majority of the board at the direction or request of the governor. As his successor, the governor dictated the appointment of a gentleman who is admittedly without any special technical knowledge or skill, but who was a devoted Democratic partisan, the editor of a county newspaper, and conspicuously active in the campaign in which the present governor was elected. And this in spite of the fact that the law requires that the secretary of the board may be designated to visit charitable institutions in other states for the purpose of obtaining information in respect to their practical workings, "and by personal inspection to observe and report to such board on all such matters as may be deemed interesting, useful, and of value in the government and discipline of institutions in the state." The same act makes it the duty of the board "to investigate the whole system of public charities and corrections," to the end that it may intelligently supervise the institutions of the state. The by-laws of the board provide, among other things, that the secretary shall make "diligent study of the whole subject of charities and corrections." It is thus clearly the intent of the law that the secretary shall be a person skilled in philanthropic work; for, as he is the only salaried officer of the board, upon him must fall the labor of collating information, keeping abreast with the progress of science, so as to intelligently formulate a programme for the consideration of the board.

Conditions in the State of Illinois are, I regret to say, in this respect far worse than in Missouri, and so far as I know than in any other state in the Union. The present governor, although his preelection promises gave great hope to those who believed in the management of state institutions upon purely business and professional lines, has flung all scruples to the wind; and it is now a generally accepted fact that all the institutions of that state are filled with appointees selected purely upon party grounds. The appointment of the secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections was a

signal disregard of executive duty and a typical case of the application of the "spoils system" to this part of the state administration. According to the statement of the present incumbent himself, a vacancy being about to occur in the board, the governor sent for him, Mr. J. Mack Tanner, a son of a former governor of the state. It was known at that time that the "Tannerites"— that is to say, the faction of the party identified with the late John R. Tanner — needed to be conciliated. Mr. Tanner explains in his attempt to justify the governor that he, Mr. Tanner, had "much experience gained while private secretary of the governor, by almost daily discussions with superintendents and trustees, of the conditions and needs of the state institutions." For this reason he was told by Governor Yates that he could have the position if he wanted it. Needless to say, he accepted it, and appears to the present day to be utterly incapable of appreciating the fact that he should not have done so because he had no special qualification for the office and the real motive of his appointment was partisanship.

The dictation of this appointment to the State Board caused the prompt and fully justified resignation of Rabbi Hirsch and Miss Julia C. Lathrop, whose conception of their high mission as members of the State Board made it impossible for them to remain as part of an organization of which they were nominally in control, but where their ability to carry out the purpose of the law was so curtailed by the governor's usurpation of power that their hands were practically tied. Their resignation was a well-merited rebuke to the arrogant party spirit which prompted Governor Yates in his unwarranted interference with the board's proper and legal duties. As Rabbi Hirsch well said at that time: "The secretary of the board should be an expert in the philanthropies." "I, for one, incline to the opinion that skill in manipulating political cabals or organizing a caucus or conducting primaries after celebrated models is the worst possible attribute of one who would be in charge of the charities of the state."

As a consequence of this disregard of the law, reforms which had been established in Illinois state institutions for the insane have been swept away. There are no longer any internes, nor women physicians. Pathological laboratories are things of the past; and visiting physicians are rare, if not altogether abolished. In the largest hospital in Illinois there have been five different superintendents in the last eight years; and out of four hundred employees in this institution

all, with the exception of about one dozen, have been changed during the same period! Thus these institutions in that state are practically in the hands of country practitioners, almost to the exclusion of the specialists. Every possible office is filled by political henchmen, party workers,— for the most part, ignorant and incompetent and sometimes brutal; parasites upon the body politic, little better than social jackals, who infest the public treasury and fatten upon the spoils of party victory.

It might have been supposed that, after the fearful abuses which were unearthed in the investigation of the Ward's Island Asylum in New York, the Indianapolis Hospital, and the Blockley Almshouse, there would have arisen a public opinion which would have checked these abuses. But it would seem that such is not the case. Even the civil service system, which exists in New York, has failed to protect from the insatiate greed of the party politician these places of trust and responsibility through which the state executes its duty to its wards. But laws, regulations, safeguards, checks, none of these seem to meet the exigencies of the situation. We might as well concede that there is no law or system of laws which will prevent maladministration of these public trusts unless they be backed up by an enlightened public opinion which will applaud their enforcement and censure their abuse. Party machinery has so long rested upon this patronage as one of its most efficient supports, has drawn so much from the public treasury to pay the agents of the party machine at the expense of the pauper and the defective, that it has become in many places the unwritten law that these spoils of victory shall go to the successful machine.

The evils which I have sketched are merely suggestive of the real condition of things. It is impossible to get at the facts which result from the ignorance and sometimes the brutality of uneducated managers and unskilled attendants. Each institution for the care of the insane is a little kingdom in itself. The superintendent, between visits of the supervising board, is almost absolutely in power. He is, as a rule, clothed with double duties, inconsistent in themselves, requiring him both to attend to the medical treatment of the inmates and also the executive duties pertaining to the management of a great business establishment. To discharge either duty well might tax to the utmost the powers of a conspicuously able man. Even if he were a trained neurologist of the highest order, he could no more

than do justice to those who are placed in his charge if he had nothing whatever to do with the management of the institution; and, if he were a man of unusual executive ability, he would find little time which he could devote to medical attendance after supervising the physical conditions of the institution itself. His word is law because he represents not only the power of the superintendent, but, being the appointee, either directly or by dictation, of the leader of the dominant party of the state, he stands for all the machinery and power of that party. His assistants and employees must be blindly obedient or lose their positions. He must of necessity be merciless in his discipline; and, in consequence, these institutions become camping grounds for partisan retainers whose time is largely given to local party organization, who are an integral part of the state machine, and who incidentally and with but indifferent success minister to the wants of those upon whom the hand of misfortune has fallen so heavily.

How utterly at war is this state of things with the modern, enlightened idea as to the care which the state owes to its citizens! By this hideous prostitution of public power, this grotesque distortion of public duty, the members of the commonwealth are made to pay taxes for the care of those who have fallen by the wayside; and these taxes are applied to the support and maintenance of the cohorts of contending party machines, while the insane and pauper are practically left to shift for themselves.

The more we analyze these conditions, the more strikingly absurd they appear. The appointment of men intrusted with the care of those who suffer under the greatest known affliction, for the reason that the appointees are true to their party, and not that they have any capacity to cure or relieve this affliction, is so anomalous, so at variance with the common practice and reason of men in the transaction of any other business, that it would excite our laughter, did it not move us to tears. The obvious purpose of a hospital for the insane is to cure those mentally defective; yet, as has been shown in the principal asylum of the State of Missouri, practically the only classification of the inmates is that which divides them into acute and chronic cases. Physical needs being attended to, the pathological aspects or the subdivisional groups of the acute cases are practically ignored. Thus the chief purpose of the institution is defeated; and the percentages of patients discharged as cured is a hap-

hazard sort of matter, depending not at all upon special skill in treatment or attendance. This is at once one of the most flagrant as well as one of the most costly instances of the loss which the state suffers by reason of the tacit consent of the people that those suffering temporarily from acute mental disease shall be treated as human derelicts rather than recoverable assets.

In this condition of things it is delightful to be able to turn for a moment to contemplate the condition of the St. Louis City Insane Asylum. That institution, under the management of one of the most highly trained specialists of the day, Dr. E. C. Runge, is at once a credit to his skill and his philanthropy. Its records show results which, under existing circumstances of narrow means and other disadvantages, are a conspicuous illustration of good management. In the brilliant curative results achieved, in the unquestioned integrity of its management, in the intelligence and philanthropic spirit in which it is conducted, it is a tribute of the highest order to the eminent scientist in whose charge it is administered, not as a party machine, but as a sacred trust.

But, unfortunately this is a rare exception; and the difficulty of the general situation is this. We have a national civil service reform law. We have in some states civil service laws which are more or less effective. As a people, we discountenance and unqualifiedly condemn this nefarious "spoils system," and we insist in all party platforms and public utterances upon the rule that only fit men shall be appointed to office. But, with that strange inconsistency so common in the conduct of public affairs in this country, we suffer to continue in practice open, flagrant, and notorious violations of this salutary rule, in nearly every department of government. The remedy, of course, at the last analysis, lies in the development of a higher order of citizenship, in a watchful, insistent public opinion, which will exact from all public officials conscientious discharge of public duty. But this doctrine, preached from every housetop, falls upon ears deaf to the importance of active intervention on the part of the public. Hence it is that these Conferences are necessary to remind the public of the laxity of public morals, which demand its present rebuke and continuous, authoritative supervision. Hence it is necessary to point out specific cases, as I have here attempted to do, wherein the law, both in its spirit and letter, is violated. The officials of public eleemosynary institutions, who know of these conditions and

wish for better things, are powerless in the premises. For the most part they are dependent upon very meagre salaries for livelihood; and protest on their part against partisan tyranny means instant, ignominious discharge. Moreover, those who are intrusted with the heavy responsibility of the care of these public agencies, devoted, as I may say, to the highest civic function, the conservation of that asset of the state consisting of the mentality of its citizens, are, as a rule, vexed with the petty details either of executive management or of political manœuvering. The heads of such institutions should be scientists. They should not only not be harassed by business detail which distracts their minds from scientific research and observation, but they should be relieved of all anxiety as to their official tenure so long as they be competent and faithful. It is the highest duty of the state to promote and encourage the votaries of science; and, if the blight of partisanship be not removed, the state will fail in this high function. Neither can the State Boards, charged with the supervision of these institutions, nor conferences, state and national, where these subjects are discussed, valuable as they are, altogether remedy these evils. The remedy is in the hands of the people,— not some of the people, but all of the people; and, unless the people show by an aroused, aggressive, intelligent interest that they will not tolerate these abuses, they will continue and they will increase. The pauper and the mentally defective will continue to suffer, dumbly, under the mailed heel of the conquering party manager. His complaint will never be heard. He is immured from the world, and can hold no converse with his fellow-man. He is the helpless victim of partisan voracity and official dishonesty. The money which the people appropriate for his needs is not wholly used for his benefit. The brilliant achievements of science are not available for his cure, because in practice the state does not exact that right for him. It is only in the private hospital, where the ambition of the alienist is aroused and his skill rewarded, that the victim of mental disease is the full beneficiary of progressive scientific thought.

It is not of the spirit of American institutions that this should be so. The vast appropriations made for the maintenance of these institutions are sufficient to furnish them with the best care that science can afford, and it is unutterably vile that these appropriations for this sacred cause should be diverted to the pockets of partisan barnacles.

It is a thing abhorrent to the mind of every honest man that the wards of the state should be deprived of the advantages freely given them by the people. Yet such is the fact, such is the flagrant, the flamboyant abuse which is now one of the common things of institutional management. It were better that there were no institutions at all than that such things should be. Laws that are not enforced are worse than no laws. Official abuses that are not redressed are a shame and a reproach to the people who suffer them. But it is idle to suppose that any relief will come till the political huckster of office and the partisan placeman is banished from these institutions, devoted as they are to the sacred cause of philanthropy. Like the money-changers in the temple, they should be scourged forth by the stern hand of outraged justice, lest they longer profane the Holy of holies.

NON-SECTARIAN AND NON-PARTISAN CHARITABLE WORK.

BY REV. JOHN F. MULLANY, LL.D., SYRACUSE, N.Y.

[At the popular meeting on Sunday night an address was read, written by the Rev. John F. Mullany, upon "Non-sectarian and Non-partisan Phases of Charitable Work. Owing to its great length, it was found impossible to print the paper in full. The following extracts bear especially on the practical work of the state in caring for children and of the church in giving them religious training.]

You, members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, are making the solution of the difficult problems that confront us on all sides a labor of love. The state needs your co-operation; for these questions are vital, and strike at the root of our national life. Material progress cannot save a nation that is morally corrupt. This danger can be averted only by such intelligent, devoted workers as are before me in this audience. We can aid the state by our private organizations and individual work. In this proposition there is a union of church and state; but it is a union sanctioned by all lovers of fair play, and blessed by Almighty God. We have no use for hysteric charity which lives on personal advertisement. Such charity leads to the soup-kitchen and pauperism. It can produce no lasting good. The charity that teaches a man to

help himself comes nearest the ideal. When he stumbles, help him to his feet; but you must not attempt to carry him, for by so doing you will injure yourself and him, too. Teach him to have confidence in God and in his own ability to work out his destiny. Every department of charities and correction has its own great problems, the solution of which rests with the officials of our public and private institutions. For instance, great care should be taken in securing Christian homes for Christian children. Every child is entitled to his Christian heritage. Approved Catholic homes should be found for children of Catholic parentage. The same will hold good for other denominations. Material comforts can never take the place of Catholic faith, and hence the attitude of the Catholic Church on this all-important question. . . .

The doctrinal life of the church is that she at all times and under all circumstances preserves unity of doctrine in the midst of multiplicity of opinion. . . . However, she has her limitations. Her mission extends only to those things for which she has been commissioned. She has no mission to teach purely secular science. Should science trespass upon her domain and assert anything opposed to her fixed and immutable principles, she cautions her children against such teachings. . . . And, when science shall have winnowed the chaff from the grain and human reason shall have become possessed of an additional fact or an additional law of nature, the church shall be found precisely where she stood before the discovery. Nor can the church recognize any training for the child from which religion is excluded. With her religion is an essential factor in education. The child of Christian parents is entitled to a Christian education. To impose upon him any system of education or training calculated to weaken his hold upon his Christian heritage into which he was born were an act of gross injustice. Therefore it is that the church binds the consciences of pastors and of people to build schools and institutions for their children, so that the faith and morals of their children would not be endangered. She has also the right to see that the books made use of, and the men and women imparting instruction, and the character of the instruction given and religious services required be such as will aid in the work of spiritualizing the child and making the soul worthy of its future heavenly abode. There must be nothing in the class-room nor daily exercises of the institution that would undermine Catholic principles. Children, even when grown up, are

not in a position to take in both sides of religious questions. They lack maturity of judgment and the information essential to determine truth from error. It were folly to leave their weak, half-trained, ill-formed minds to grapple with issues that exercise the most ripened scholars to comparatively little purpose. This is why the church exercises due vigilance over all state and private institutions, so as to safeguard the faith of Catholic children therein committed. This is why Catholics build institutions of their own, when possible, for the care of their poor and unfortunate. . . .

Here in our own American republic these relations are almost ideal. We cannot have a union of church and state in the former sense of the word, because here in the United States the forms of Christian belief are many, which would render such an order of things impossible. But the order of things guaranteed by our own Constitution and our laws is admirable, and gives us a union of church and state freed from the evils of the old régime.

The noble patriots who framed our Constitution and laid so firmly the foundations of our republic built upon the rights and liberties inherent in many. Now these rights and liberties with their accompanying duties and responsibilities are not in the state. They are above and beyond the state. They are the vital principles that give being to the state. They are the natural law, which is a participation of the eternal law of God. The state is simply the mouthpiece to proclaim this law and the instrument to enforce it. The principles of right and wrong existed before they were made to enter into statutory decrees, just as the decalogue was engraven on the hearts of men before Moses inscribed them on tables of stone. These principles are eternal, and it is our pride and glory and the secret of our prosperity as a people that the great charter of our liberties is based upon them. In consequence the state admits the right of every man to worship God according to the dictates of his conscience. Every man has his rights of conscience,— rich and poor, black and white, saint and sinner,— not as privileges conceded by the state, but as rights existing among his other natural rights. Church and state do not here exist upon a system of natural concessions or privileges. There is no absorption of one into the other. They are distinct, but they are not separated. On the contrary, their union is most intimate and most harmonious. We ask no closer relations of church or state, so far as our religion is concerned. Our sole cry is, "Hands off!"

The state is incompetent to pronounce upon religious matters: it has no mission to determine the validity of a religious creed. To discriminate in favor of any one to the exclusion of all the others were an act of injustice to every citizen not holding the favored creed. It were un-American because it were unconstitutional. It is the prime duty of the state to aid and protect its citizens in the fulfilment of their respective duties,— to secure to them their inalienable rights, to see that justice is done between man and man; and, above all, it is the duty of the state to safeguard the weak minorities in their rights, and protect them against the more powerful majorities.

In every man and woman there is an inseparable union of church and state. Each holds certain religious tenets, for most people belong to some visible form of Christianity; and, in proportion as they all live up to their religious convictions, in that proportion are they good citizens, faithful in the performance of their civic duties, honest, honorable, and just in all relations of life. Christian virtue in Christian society has never dimmed the civic virtues. Would the New England Puritans have left so lasting an impression upon this republic if they had been less intimately religious? The fierceness and asperity and intolerance that entered into their religious convictions and dictated the colonial blue laws, also shaped the rigid honesty and integrity of character that would die rather than deviate a hair's breadth from the path of rectitude. Were the noble patriots who fought and bled for the liberties we now enjoy less sturdy in their love of country because they were brought up strictly and religiously by their Puritan fathers or Catholic teachers? This is a subject over which men often lose their good common sense. When we raise ourselves above prejudice, and look facts full in the face, we shall find perfect reconciliation between church and state. In the great work of charities and correction there is room for all. The platform of this Conference is broad enough for Jew and Gentile, for Protestant and Catholic. We can all unite in lifting up poor humanity to a higher plane. We are all children of the same great Father, all made in his image and likeness. . . .

In this distinguished Conference of Charities and Correction there are many groups of earnest workers. You desire to help the poor, to take care of the orphan, to reform the criminal, to lovingly look after the afflicted and the wayward, and make them not only good citizens of the state, but also citizens of the heavenly Jerusalem.

We all contribute our quota to the common good; and, distinct as may be our individual views and preferences as to the ways and means, we all unite in one common desire to assist poor suffering humanity. We may honestly differ in the means pursued to accomplish this common end; but the end kept in view is always the same, — good citizenship and prosperity in the present life and eternal happiness in the next. To the noble efforts of humanity and science we add religion, which is paramount, and which aims at the life to come, but in such a way that the preparation for future happiness always includes the discharge of our civic and moral duties, and respect for law and the rights of others here below. Is not every full and perfect life the harmonious blending of the love of God and of our neighbor? In this great commandment is the future union of church and state. The name of God may not be in our Constitution, but his hand is discernible in every word of it. With far-seeing wisdom was the first amendment inserted, which should ever be borne in mind by all true Americans. It is the pledge of our religious liberty. "Congress shall make no law respecting the free exercise of religion or prohibiting the full exercise thereof."

XIV.

Neighborhood and Civic Improvement.

HOUSING REFORM IN CHICAGO.

BY ROBERT HUNTER, UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK.

The movement for the betterment of housing conditions in Chicago is over ten years old. The first inquiries concerning the sanitary and housing conditions of the working people began about the time of the World's Columbian Exposition, and were pursued intermittently thereafter by little groups of interested individuals. It was not, however, until 1897 that these scattered efforts at housing reform became crystallized into an association. In that year the "Improved Housing Association" was formed, and some conferences were held for the purpose of arousing the public to the necessity of a revision of the laws and of a general improvement of sanitary conditions.

In the fall of 1899, when New York was preparing to make an exhibition of tenement conditions in America at the Paris Exhibition, the Improved Housing Association collected in a very hurried and incomplete way a few facts concerning the conditions which existed in various parts of Chicago. The information was mostly obtained at second hand; and, although some facts acquired by an actual investigation showed extremely bad conditions in certain parts of the city, the knowledge was insufficient as a basis for promoting any reforms.

When the New York exhibition came to Chicago it, together with a three days' conference, interested a large number of people; and at the end of this conference the "City Homes Association" was formed. Since that time the entire question of housing has remained in the hands of that association. This society immediately

laid plans for carrying out a broad reform work. The association did not at that time anticipate any necessity for radical action, nor did it hope, or think it necessary in the beginning, to obtain a thorough and fundamental control of the situation. As a result, its activities began with the more obvious and outward methods of reform; namely, model tenements, open spaces, certain laws. These reforms had been the ones which had most conspicuously occupied the time and effort of philanthropic organizations in other cities, and they naturally appealed to the Chicago association as things to be done. In other words, the particular efforts of the Chicago body at first were specific reforms imitative of those which older cities had formulated.

Although copying in a way the efforts of other cities, the City Homes Association in its organization is the broadest society of its kind that has yet come into existence. It plans to carry on the various reforms which in other cities are undertaken by separate and unrelated organizations. Elsewhere, for instance, there have been law enforcement societies, model housing associations, sanitary aid organizations, municipal lodging-house committees, and small park and garden associations. In Chicago these committees, or their equivalents, exist; but all are under the direction of the City Homes Association, are, in fact, the parts into which that powerful organization has divided itself for dealing effectively in a broad way with the housing question.

It was planned that nothing was to be done by these various working bodies — there are five of them — until the Investigating Committee had made careful inquiries into the typical problems existing in the city. A most careful and conscientious investigation was made, therefore, as a basis upon which the other co-related committees should plan their work. The Small Parks and Playgrounds Committee became immediately interested in extending the very inadequate breathing-spaces which at that time the city provided for the people of the tenement-house districts. It began immediately to co-operate with the Special Park Commission of Chicago; and I think it is not too much to say that the work of this body has been very largely moulded by the efforts of the various boards of the City Homes Association that have given time to the work of the mayor's commission. The Model Tenement Committee was organized for the purpose of building tenements,

having the same ends in view as the City and Suburban Homes Association of New York. The Committee on Laws and Law Enforcement was organized to examine and compare the laws of the various cities, and to draw up a code peculiarly adapted to meet Chicago conditions. The Committee on Vagrancy undertook immediately to deal with that large class of the floating population for which Chicago has been called the Mecca.

As has been indicated, the first work attempted by this association was a general examination of housing and sanitary conditions in the more congested portions of the city. The result of that investigation has been published in a volume called "Tenement Conditions in Chicago."

The evolution of the tenement in most cities in England and America shows, to say the least, remarkable lines of similarity. In Chicago the small house that had formerly been inhabited by a single family was standing in sheer contrast to the immense "double-decker" which covered almost every inch of the lot, and which in consequence had no adequate provision for light and ventilation. Between these two extremes were all the stages of the evolution, each stage having its evils; and side by side in certain streets were all the representative types.

There is no need to rehearse in detail the conditions which were found in Chicago, and were written of in the report of the association. They were certainly very bad; and, if the public had been sufficiently interested, if they had had eyes to see and ears to hear, there would undoubtedly have been a vigorous demand for reform. The main point to be brought out is that the City Homes Association was strangely opportune in its organization, and that the first work showed conditions at that stage which permitted the most splendid formative and preventive work that any city has ever undertaken. New York must eradicate. New York must reform. Nearly everything in that city must be done over. Whatever is being done must be stopped, whatever is must be remedied. Chicago has but started, and its evolution may be largely determined by the enlightened public citizens of that city.

In looking back upon that investigation made two years ago, many of us have realized that we but partially saw and but inadequately stated the problem. For some reason, not until after the inquiry did we realize the full importance of apartment houses in the tenement-

house problem. Since then we have at times been almost inclined to regard the apartment house as the crux of the whole question. The evils latent in this house are not obvious now while it is inhabited by wage-earners, artisans, and small-shop keepers. The means of the inhabitants enable them to keep the dark rooms unused. Overcrowding is rarely serious, and the janitor's service often saves the property from degenerating into that class which we now call "tenement-house property." The poorest of the apartment-house property, despite steam heat, baths, and other conveniences, is already deserving of no better name than tenement. Most of the apartment houses are built in violation of even the present erratic and inadequate law. They are constructed with no air-shaft; they are badly built; they are often of the double-decker plan; they are totally lacking in fire construction.

I recall a typical example of a house of this sort — an apartment building not more than ten years old — which has so degenerated that it is far worse than much tenement-house property. Once a high-class apartment house, the character of its occupants has gradually changed until now it is inhabited by clerks and tradespeople, many of whom keep up an appearance of respectability on less than the income of the average artisan. When the higher paying tenants moved from the house, the flats of six and seven rooms were cut into two and three apartments. By this division a large number of rooms were made absolutely windowless and dark. The janitor service has diminished, until now accumulations of refuse and dirt are to be found in many parts of the building. The plumbing is invariably out of order, and the crowding approaches the danger line. This building is an example of what much of the apartment-house property is sure to become.

The many of us who have been watching tenement-house conditions develop in Chicago have a firm belief that from this almost unnoticed class of buildings Chicago's most serious housing problem is sure to come. The investigation undertaken by the City Homes Association failed to emphasize the possibilities for evil in these buildings, and to that extent was faulty in its scope and unsafe as a basis for reform. It is well to state fully the whole problem in a city so typical of a certain class of large cities in the United States. New York's conditions serve in a way as a warning, as the "awful example"; but they are far too aggravated and

extreme to supply other cities in the United States with real guidance in the matter of specific and detailed reform work. Chicago's method of reform may, perhaps, have a larger influence than that of New York upon reform work in other cities. It is, therefore, of importance to other cities than Chicago that the reforms in that city should be truly model ones. At the present time one too frequently sees reform bodies copying whatever may have been undertaken in other cities without in many cases having necessity for those particular measures. Comprehensive plans developed from the study of conditions are rare, and an original handling of local problems is almost never observed. Opportunism prevails almost invariably, and reforms started in London or New York are likely to have their miniature copies in every other progressive city. Thorough and comprehensive plans, which are in such striking evidence as preliminary to the municipal activity in many German and French cities, seem wholly absent from reform undertakings in our city communities. In America we have not the patience to work according to some far-looking plan: something must be accomplished every month and every year. In Germany and France the most stirring reforms that have been accomplished are the results of years of planning and long years of careful and well-directed activity.

Whether or not it is possible for the people in Chicago to get at the very roots of the matter in a new and original way, and to show the world how one community can handle its housing problem, must remain a question for many years to come. The opportunity there is so great that it seems a vast pity to miss it. At present perhaps nothing better can be done than to force upon the community laws copied after those existing on the statute books of other cities. Perhaps model tenements which are not specially needed, or which may serve no vital purpose, may be erected, and other measures in the way of imitative reforms be undertaken. But one cannot believe that Chicago, after so wisely devising the organization of the City Homes Association, will not do a more remarkable work in planning a thorough and comprehensive reform of its housing evils.

The City Homes Association is a strong and powerful body, and fully realizes the importance of the work which it has undertaken. It is a serious responsiblity which it has accepted; but, having accepted the responsibility, the City Homes Association will carry the work through, if such a thing be possible. If it fully grasps the situation,

it will not be satisfied to do a little building of model tenements here and there; it will not stop with the establishment of small parks and playgrounds; it will not be content with new laws. To be satisfied with these improvements would indicate that the City Homes Association had gone no deeper into the great housing problem than to slavishly copy the reforms of London, New York, Boston, Liverpool, Birmingham, and other cities. It will not stop with these efforts; for, after all, the City Homes Association sees as well as anybody how little these reforms have accomplished in the older cities.

Accomplishments along the three lines of activity just mentioned would not long satisfy the needs of Chicago. Those of us interested in reform were gladdened beyond measure when the City Homes Association came; for, looking into the future, we saw an unbroken series of improvements to be secured through its instrumentality. Even if it is only to handle the problem lightly, it is well it came, but not very well. If, however, it refuses to be content with a few little unimportant results which it may put in annual reports, and instead plans a comprehensive work of co-ordinating and vivifying all the forces in Chicago for health and beauty; if it is determined that the population shall be widely distributed, and that the municipal authorities shall maintain decent housing conditions,— then it is certain to accomplish a vast work, and to fulfil the great hopes aroused by its organization. It will cost many thousands of dollars each year, but it will change the history of Chicago.

Radical action has magnificent possibilities in the great Western metropolis. Chicago has not yet reached that hopeless, baffling stage at which New York and London have arrived. Houses in that city may be demolished without cruelly advancing rents and dangerously increasing overcrowding; bad building may be restricted without immediate evil results; small parks and playgrounds may be established at comparatively small cost and without unhousing many people; factories may be forced out of the inner circle — even from the river banks — more easily now than later; model tenements may be located now by choice and not by necessity. In the older cities some of the most necessary reforms that have been carried through have been temporarily injurious. Chicago faces no such dilemma. Whether or not housing reform in Chicago is to be a blessing bestowed by this generation upon the generations to come seems largely to depend upon the thoroughness with which the problem of evil conditions is now handled by the City Homes Association.

There occur to me two particular instances in America of things ideally planned, and, at least in the beginning, thoroughly executed. Both of these things have been done by Frenchmen. Within the last few months the commission for remodelling the whole city of Washington has found it wise to go back to the original plans drawn for laying out the city by L'Enfant. The other instance to which I refer is the work done by Lawrence Veiller and the New York Tenement House Commission of 1900. New York cannot at this time deal with her housing question as she might have done if this Tenement House Commission could have laid its plans fifty years ago to prevent the conditions which now exist in New York. Nevertheless, despite a very inferno of conditions, despite the most intense pressure on the part of landlords and a population growing with amazing rapidity, the commission planned and carried through one of the most systematic and thorough reforms that has ever been instituted by any municipality. In so far as New York could at this time afford to cut at the very roots of the evil, it has done so in a wonderfully powerful way.

When the plan outlining the policy of the Tenement-house Department was sent me by Lawrence Veiller, previous to its being placed before the commission, I was convinced that it was not feasible. It so clearly and systematically laid out the exact field of activity in which a body dealing with the tenement-house conditions should work, it so wonderfully selected from all the various departments in the city the powers it should have and the duties it was peculiarly fitted to undertake, and it so revolutionized and resystematized, not only one or two departments of the city government, but all departments, where they had to do with tenement conditions that it seemed to me a perfect plan, but one impossible to carry out. To use a phrase so often employed, "Theoretically it was perfect, but practically it seemed impossible." It seems too good to be true that, although modified somewhat from the plan which I saw originally, it should now be substantially a part of the city government of New York.

There is still some question about the practical results that will be achieved by this wonderful plan. However, whether or not it succeeds, it is a perfect illustration of the kind of scheme which should be formulated in Chicago at this time, when it is possible to mould municipal undertakings. Reform will come altogether one day in

that city. Municipal government there has almost reached the stage when from a score of different directions there will come irrepressible demands for reorganization, and it will be but a few years until settled. Those friends of housing reform who are looking to Chicago to do something which will be a distinct contribution to the handling of this great question cannot but believe that some great plan will be evolved and adopted that will be more comprehensive than that which any other city has yet undertaken. The City Homes Association will doubtless prepare itself for the time when the municipal crisis, which is sure to come, will give them an opportunity to obtain the power for handling officially the entire question of the housing of people.

The housing question is, after all, one which should be studied not only from the sanitary point of view. Involved as it is with all other municipal questions, it must be studied as a part of the whole. The laying out of suburbs, the increasing in an endless number of ways the dicentric tendencies in the movement of population, the encouragement of factories to leave the central portions of our cities and to colonize in the country, quick transit, an ample number of cars, transfer from the various sides of the city, low street-car and railway fares,— these are all matters vitally connected with housing, and which open a still wider field of activity to the association which desires to fulfil its possibilities in the direction of housing improvement.

The housing question is not a peculiar growth of a few cities. It is even now a municipal question with many cities in every part of the United States. As Robert W. de Forest says: "Let none suppose that our cities, however small, will remain free from the evils of the tenement house, which in larger cities has necessarily evolved in self-protection tenement-house regulations. The tenement has come to the United States, like the Canada thistle, to grow and multiply. The smaller cities need not go through the bitter experience which is teaching New York and other cities their lessons. They can, by timely regulation, prevent the crystallization of unsanitary conditions into brick and mortar. I do not recommend the adoption in every city of the New York law. It was framed to meet the special conditions there existent. The remedy should be no greater than the prevailing or expected disease warrants. A few elementary regulations with regard to court areas, vacant spaces, and regular official inspec-

tion, to make certain that these simple regulations are followed in construction, and that ordinary sanitary rules are complied with in maintenance, will suffice, if there be always a keen eye to look some years ahead, and if plans be laid to meet future needs before they make themselves unpleasantly manifest, and before conditions are created, as in New York, which cannot be changed except at great cost to owners and to the municipality."

It will be well for those of other cities interested in housing reform to watch the City Homes Association of Chicago. Those who have been members of that association know what a remarkable synthesis it is of various activities, each of which has after all to do with the reform of the same conditions. But it represents even more than it seems. The person who of all persons has done most for municipal art in Chicago is an active member of the association; the one who has given so generously and has done most for the new education is a devoted worker in all its undertakings; the woman who has most faithfully and unfailingly preached and practised democracy, and has built up in a few years the most wonderful settlement in the world, is a constant adviser in every project. No one need feel that the future of this question is a dark one. These people have not been in the way of doing small things. Their plans in other projects have been wise and thorough; and those of us who know most about what is going on in Chicago feel assured the entire West, and perhaps the entire country, may in a few years look to it for guidance in dealing with the most subtle, complex, and universal municipal problem of the century.

THE MANAGEMENT OF TENEMENT HOUSES.

BY ELLEN H. BAILEY, BOSTON.

One reads with more than a general interest the reports of the New York Tenement-house Commission, and what is said of the evils which prevail in the ordinary New York tenement house by persons prominently active in their endeavors to secure better housing for the poor in New York City.

The visitor among the tenements of New York can amply testify

to the truth of statements made regarding the overcrowding in these houses, the unsanitary arrangement of the apartments, the dark, ill-ventilated stairways and passages, the foul-smelling air-shafts, and the lack of all apparent endeavor by landlords to keep their property, badly constructed as it is, in as clean and healthy a condition as existing circumstances will allow. Repairs, even small repairs, promptly attended to, halls and stairways regularly scrubbed and cleaned, and careful inspection of the toilet closets would do much to improve the present condition of New York tenements. But this cannot be done without effort.

Let every landlord, be he a single individual or a company of individuals holding tenement-house property, see to it that his houses are well managed; that tenants of doubtful character are not accepted for occupancy in his houses, even if they are ready with regular payment of their rent; that references be required from all tenants applying for rooms; that these references be carefully investigated and kept on file; and that the welfare of the tenants be regarded, as well as the amount of income to be derived from his investment.

The respectable working people would flock to houses that were managed with a view to their consideration and comfort as well as the landlord's profits; and it is astonishing that no emphasis is laid on the fact of wise and competent management by the members of the Tenement-house Commission and the philanthropists who suggest such remedies for the tenement-house evils as improved construction, absence of sweat-shops, making hallways public highways, lighting of halls and stairways, smaller profits on tenement-house investments, and the like. All these suggestions are good as far as they go. But, given the best-constructed model tenement, fire-proof, well lighted and ventilated, and with proper sanitary arrangements, if the management is put in charge of an uneducated agent or housekeeper whose duty comprises the letting of rooms, the collection of rents, and possibly the reporting of needed repairs to the landlord, that model tenement will show early signs of deterioration, not only of the property itself, but in the class of tenants that occupy it.

The work of managing tenement houses is a profession for refined and educated women with business ability and capacity. This has been proved by Miss Octavia Hill who, more than thirty years ago, began this work in London,— a city where vice is certainly not less prevalent

than in New York. The ladies who are engaged in this work in London, many of them owners of the property they manage, have been thoroughly instructed and trained in Miss Hill's system and methods. They are not merely rent collectors. They have full control of the letting of the tenements, of the repairs, and all business connected with the houses. They enter the profession with a determination to help the effort of the workingman, compelled to live in a tenement house, to live respectably and decently while maintaining absolutely fair and just dealings with the landlord. A certain percentage of the return on money invested is allowed for management, exclusive of repairs, taxes, and such service as is necessary to keep the premises in a clean and wholesome condition. This expense is more than overbalanced by the regular payment of rents which is enforced, and the desirability on the part of respectable poor people to live in tenements so managed. Landlords would find it to their advantage to put their houses in charge of such competent management rather than to employ a housekeeper or agent who is more or less often at war with the tenants, who is seeking to make a dollar whenever he can either out of the tenant or the landlord, and who has no personal interest in the great question of improving the housing condition of the poor or of other questions equally humane.

Miss Hill declares that she has trained women for this work in America; and, few in numbers though they be, they are here, ready to give the helping hand, if landlords and owners wish to secure their services. But they stipulate for the full carrying out of Miss Hill's method of management. The City and Suburban Homes Company employs as manager of its block of houses on the East Side a lady trained to the work in London, and up to this point there is no question of her success. Two other ladies, well known in New York, are successfully managing tenement-house property, one of these herself the owner of the houses she manages. Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, of Boston, who is a firm believer in the management of tenement houses by well-trained and educated women, and who herself engaged in the work after studying with Miss Hill in London, substantiates all that can be said in behalf of wise and competent management going far to solve the tenement-house problem.

It would indeed be difficult for a lady interested to improve the housing condition of the poor, to undertake the management of the foul, ill-smelling, badly constructed tenements that prevail in New

York. But surely there are a large number of public-spirited men of wealth in that great city (we might almost call them by name) who ought to look in the direction of tenement-house investments, tearing down these vile rookeries, and rebuilding on the plan of the City and Suburban Homes Company, if they would uplift their fellow-men. What avail churches, cathedrals, colleges, charity organizations, and relief societies, if a large per cent. of the population of New York City are steeped in filth, disease, and vice, because no provision is made for decent family living in the tenements?

Simple in construction, but substantially built, of good material, well lighted, well ventilated, and with sanitary comfort and convenience for each family, the competent and thoughtful manager will return to the owner of such tenements from 4 to 5 per cent. on his investment,— a dividend as great as many of our large moneyed institutions can secure on their investments.

With the present agitation concerning the tenements in New York, the time seems ripe for some decided move to be made toward the better management of the new and better constructed houses which, if not yet in actual existence, are sure to be the outcome of the recent exposure of tenement-house conditions as they are found to-day. Are there not those who are ready now to look into this question of management, see where it might be introduced with efficacy into some of the existing model tenements, and provision made for securing competent managers for the model tenements to be erected in the near future?

The management of tenement houses is work for women,— not uneducated, unbusiness-like, self-interested women, unwilling to enter the field with the spirit of devotion and self-sacrifice that the work demands. The women are here, not in large numbers, it is true, waiting for the work. Put them into position now to train others who shall be ready when there is greater demand for their services. New York City offers a field for such service to-day; and its citizens should be alive to the fact that with improved construction of tenement houses must come improved management.

This is not a proposition based on philanthropy, so called. In no way does it suggest giving something for nothing, exempting the workingman from a full and regular payment of his rent, thus becoming another injudicious means of almsgiving. On the contrary, it is philanthropy based on sound business principles. The

philanthropy consists in the opportunity offered to the poor man for decent and comfortable living at a moderate rental,—a rental that ought not to exceed one-fifth of his income, and, by kindly supervision, seeing that he lives up to his opportunity unmolested. The business principles are the same as those which underlie any other investment,—seeing that you have a good article for your money, that the article your money represents is well taken care of, and that you have a fair return for the money you have invested. Neglect in the care of tenement houses is subject to the same law as neglect of any other kind of property, but in this the owner is not the only loser thereby. His tenants suffer; and the ills to which neglect subjects them is communicated to others, and are spread like a contagion. Sound business principles permit neither careless work nor neglect in any direction; and he who would legislate for improved construction to solve the tenement-house problem must also advocate wise, thoughtful, and competent management for the homes of the working people.

Miss Hill's methods of management will bear investigation, and are as applicable to the conditions that exist in American cities as they are in London and Glasgow, where they are extensively operated.

It is not enough to talk and agitate for needed reform in the direction of the tenements. Workers must come forward who are willing to put their shoulders to the wheel, and not least among these may be found the women who are ready and competent for service in the management of tenement houses. They will abundantly assist the capitalist who, moved by public spirit, ventures his money in the erection of a truly model tenement house.

HOUSING REFORM IN BOSTON.

BY MRS. ALICE N. LINCOLN.

The tenement-house question holds the key to a good many of the problems which are perplexing us. I have been engaged in the tenement-house work for more than twenty-two years. In that time I have watched it very closely, and I have come to consider it of

more and more importance. I think that, if we had better housing conditions in our large cities, we should have fewer inmates of our public institutions, fewer paupers to maintain, fewer criminals to shut up. In other words, I believe that, if we could start all our children from good homes, we should enable more of them to lead good lives. It is astonishing how one comes to feel that poor housing conditions and crime go together, how the children who did not have any chances in the beginning are not likely to turn out very well in the end. For that reason I think we can hardly lay too much stress on the necessity of providing good homes for the working people. The company of which I am a director was incorporated for the purpose of providing "good homes at moderate cost for working people."

There is also an opportunity to look after the people who cannot live in model houses. That is where I began work, in the tenement district, and in a poor old dilapidated tenement house. I have it still. Its conditions have never been very good in point of construction, but there is plenty of light and air; and its death-rate has been so remarkably low that it has had for many years the reputation of being a "lucky" house, but its luck has largely consisted in our giving the tenants good rules, and seeing to it that they are enforced. It was an old house when I took it. If you were to pass it, you would say that it was out of place in its present surroundings. I have suggested that it should be torn down; but the owner says that, as long as I am willing to hire this house, he wants to keep it. And so its tenure of existence seems to depend somewhat on my own.

The children who live in good houses appreciate them. I am very much struck by that. They have quite a feeling about their homes. Any one who works among the poor must have observed that people do not like to change from one locality to another. In the poorer sections of a city, tenants do not like to change from one house to another. I have had some tenants for almost twenty years; and in that length of time the sense of home grows up in their minds, and is well worth cultivating. I felt that it was a great advance when in the old house I have mentioned (my original house) the people first began to take an interest in the welfare of the house itself, not only in their own part of it; and, when a woman of her own accord put up clean window curtains at the entry window,

it seemed to me to show that she had come to have a pride in the house.

The new houses built by the Co-operative Building Company are carefully arranged so as to provide for people who require only a few rooms. Some of the tenements consist of two, some of three, some of four rooms. The greatest demand is for four-room tenements at $3 a week. There is also a demand for three-room tenements on the ground floor at $2.75 per week. These houses are very attractive on the outside, but nothing has been sacrificed inside to make a pretty exterior. They are in a suburb toward Dorchester, and are reached by cars every twenty minutes. We had an unfortunate experience in putting them up. They leaked badly, and we expected to suffer. The tenants complained, and we were distressed; but, to our surprise, all the tenants but two have remained with us. In spite of the discouragements they liked the houses so well that they stayed. We find that tenants consider our rules very strict, and they are so intentionally. We read the rules to the tenants before they agree to take rooms, and we expect the rules to be observed. If tenants do not like strict rules, they can go elsewhere. The rules are a protection to the tenants.

Our treasurer, who like the rest of the directors serves without any compensation, is fond of telling us that we must consider the business side as well as the philanthropic side of the question of housing. Without trying to proclaim that we are going to make any improvements, we often do improve the neighborhood, because our tenants are good, self-respecting people, and because our houses are kept in decent order; and we want the people in the houses to be clean and well cared for. Opposite one block which was built by the company a number of years ago the houses were very shabby, and cracked from top to bottom. By and by the owners of this property realized that their houses did not look as well as ours; and they propped them up and repaired them. I believe that a well-managed block of houses has an educational influence.

We employ women as rent-collectors entirely. This is not from choice especially, but because we believe that women do the work better than men. We have tried both, and women take more kindly to the work. It is housekeeping on a large scale. They see more quickly where repairs are needed, and women get into closer contact with the family: they are welcomed as friends. One thing I insist

upon is that our rent-collectors shall not be hurried in doing their work. It takes a good while for tenants to understand why an agent requires certain things that they never had to do before; and, if the agent is in a hurry, and says, "No matter, you have got to do it," it is unfortunate. We want the collector to have time to sit down and say why the tenements are to be kept clean and the other rules complied with.

In Chicago the conditions for doing this work seem to me remarkably good. I had the privilege of visiting a number of tenements there with Miss Jane Addams. There are some wretched buildings, but the streets are wide, and there is sunlight and space; and I think that Chicago has a great opportunity before it. The need of model tenements there and everywhere is great. It is not only a question whether people care to occupy them: it is educational to the community to have them. After tenants have lived in them, they will not go back and live in the old buildings they formerly occupied; and capitalists will be compelled to put up better ones. We find in Boston that there is close competition between the real estate owners, who see that our houses are a good thing, and who, therefore, build houses that are as much like ours as possible. We do not care who builds them, so long as the people have them. There are many rows of houses similar to ours, but the trouble is they are not well managed. It is a great advantage to have blocks of model houses, managed by good agents.

The "dumb bell" tenements of New York and Brooklyn are the hardest to deal with. The interior rooms in these tenements can never be good. The crying evil of existing tenement houses in all the large cities is that they do not get enough light. They do not get enough privacy, either. To give light and sanitary protection and privacy, we must have model tenement houses.

XV.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Wednesday, May 28, 1902.

The Twenty-ninth National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Detroit, Mich., from May 28 to June 3, 1902. The first session was called to order in the Central Methodist Church by the chairman of the Local Committee. Prayer was offered by the Rev. W. H. Shier, presiding elder of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Music was furnished for this session and throughout the Conference, by special arrangements for each evening, under the direction of Mrs. Ida F. Norton. The address of welcome was given on behalf of the state by Hon. A. T. Bliss, Governor of Michigan, as follows: —

WELCOME OF HON. A. T. BLISS, GOVERNOR OF MICHIGAN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Conference of Charities and Correction,— It is a great privilege as chief executive of this Commonwealth to extend to you the welcome of the two and a half millions of people who comprise our state; for I certainly am warranted in including every citizen in the welcome, because each, directly or indirectly, must receive some benefit from your meeting with us. I would also tender you a friendly greeting in behalf of the management of the many charitable institutions, both state and private, and of the reformatory and penal institutions of Michigan.

In my official capacity I speak the welcome of each and all of these; but such official welcome is no warmer or more sincere than that which I wish to and do extend personally, appreciating, as I do, the great good to humanity which this National Conference has accomplished since twenty-seven years ago this month its seventeen members, representing Massachusetts, New York, Wisconsin, Penn-

sylvania, Illinois, and Michigan, convened in the Detroit Council Chamber, and were welcomed by that large-hearted and charitable man, Governor of Michigan, the Hon. John J. Bagley.

From that day to this Michigan has not lagged behind in the great march of human effort for the bettering of the condition of her unfortunate, but has ever been in the van. In this matter, as in all others, the state has a splendid history, beginning over half a century ago, when the fathers placed in her constitution the memorable words: "Institutions for the benefit of those inhabitants who are deaf, dumb, blind, and insane, shall always be fostered and supported," down to the present when Michigan is caring for her insane, in her fine hospitals for the feeble-minded and epileptic, the deaf, dumb, and blind, the dependent children, the delinquent boys and girls, the criminal element in three prisons, and her heroic veterans in her Soldiers' Home. From that early day until now Michigan has always sought to adopt the best that existed or that which experience commended for housing and maintaining her wards.

The State Board of Corrections and Charities, brought into existence by the legislature of 1871, has practically had the continued confidence and support of the citizens of Michigan. The legislature has never made the mistake of conferring on the board any but supervisory powers. The board is, however, authorized to make investigations of county and state institutions, when ordered by the governor so to do; is required to review all proposed appropriations to be asked by the state charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions, and report its opinion on the same; and its certificate is required that new work at state institutions can be done within the amount appropriated for such before the auditor-general can issue his warrant on the state treasurer for the funds.

Not only do I welcome you as a Conference to our peninsula state, but I extend to each member a cordial invitation to visit and inspect the several institutions which Michigan has provided and is maintaining for her unfortunate citizens, whether they are such because of their being defective, dependent, or delinquent. Visit our hospitals for the insane, which, we believe, are conducted on the most approved methods, and by superintendents who are thoroughly conversant with the work committed to them; visit our institutions for juveniles of whatever class, provided, equipped, maintained, and officered as such should be; visit our penitentiaries, which show steady progress, under some adverse conditions, toward better things. Michigan is not moss-grown and settled in ruts, but is ever young, aspiring for the best, and welcomes this Conference in the hope that the best may be revealed.

I would invite your attention to Michigan's method of dealing with the problem of prevention work through its county agency system, whereby the juvenile offender secures a friend at court, a probation

officer where sentence is suspended, a state officer who must approve of every home before any dependent or delinquent child can be placed in it from any institution or by any person having to do with such children, an officer who must supervise the home while the child remains in it, who is the parole officer to a child placed out from a reformatory, and who is required to take an interest in the child after his full discharge and return to the county, and note and report the effect of the reformatory work.

I throw open the doors of all these our institutions that you, our guests, may enter and be informed by personal observation as to the part Michigan has, and is taking, in the great work for the consideration of which you are here assembled in our beautiful metropolis.

This being a national assembly, I feel I should not be doing my whole duty if I did not talk to you for a few minutes on Michigan. Every devoted Wolverine is justly proud of these two peninsulas. The history of Michigan, her men, her resources, and her manufactures, new industries as well as old, arouse their love, and command their admiration. Americans think so much of the United States as a whole that I fear sometimes they forget the units which make their country great. From the very day that the great Northwest was first opened up, Michigan has been one of the most valuable assets of the nation. The state has ever been true to the call of duty, and not once has she failed the nation in her hour of peril. Even greater than that, her citizenship has contributed to the best thought of the country, and stability and thoroughness have always been the watchwords under which her duties have been performed.

At no time since the close of the Civil War has Michigan been more prosperous than to-day. I feel I can say, and say justly, that at no time in our history can we be prouder of our state than now. The United States has become a world power, and Old Glory floats over a hemisphere. Isolation is no longer possible or desirable. Commercial supremacy is the goal; and, in the struggle, Michigan has much to bring to the battle and much to reap from the conflict.

Lengthening bands of steel that shall carry the manufactures of the Union over the round globe will be dug from our mines. The great ships of our greater commercial navy and the bull-dogs that guard them will be built from our iron. The cables that shall transmit the newly awakened Pan-American thought will be welded from metal dug from the shores of Lake Superior; for to-day the world travels on Michigan steel, and talks and telegraphs over Michigan copper. With our waterways open to the sea and our rapidly improving rail transportation we can reach the markets of the world. It has been said that Michigan could get along better than any other state in the union if surrounded by a sky-high wall. That is probably true, as a matter of fact; but the state is not exclusive.

Michigan is one of the United States in every sense of the word, and a hundred battlefields attest her devotion to the Union.

In conclusion, I would say I almost feel personally acquainted with many of you before me, your faces made familiar to me through the group of photographs of noble ex-Presidents which hangs in the capitol at Lansing, on the walls of the office of our own state board. Through the published proceedings of the Conference a harmonious chord is struck which vibrates in a unison which makes for brotherly love, esteem, and fraternal relation into which one would enter; and, in the hope that this Conference may maintain the high standard of past ones, for the state and myself personally I extend now to each delegate present a most sincere and heartfelt welcome.

The Conference was then welcomed to the city of Detroit by the mayor, Hon. William C. Maybury, chairman of the Local Committee, in the following words: —

WELCOME OF THE MAYOR OF DETROIT.

Ladies and Gentlemen, — It gives me great pleasure to add to the kindly words of the governor a welcome to the city of Detroit. Your presence here is inspiring. It is not merely to bid you welcome that I come here to-night, but rather to tell you how thankful we are that you have seen fit to come. The presence of a gathering like this to discuss subjects that bear on the welfare of the community is one which may well incite our gratitude. We are glad to say to-night that in Detroit, though the night is so cold for this season, we have no fear that any one is suffering. Even when the winter is upon us, and the snows are deep and the sky is cold, we know there is for every form of distress a home, a protecting place, a refuge, in Detroit. I find greater occasion for pride in this than in anything else. We have some twenty-eight churches associated in this work of charity, intelligently co-operating, that in seeking to do good they may not by injudicious methods do harm. If this work were suspended in Detroit, the city would not be what it is to-day. If I were to ask any of the ladies or gentlemen here, What will you take in exchange for the hard work you have done in the cause of charity or correction? I can anticipate the response. There is no money value that you can place upon it. You would not be separated from it. It is an experience too dear and too large a part of your life. This work is always reflective of good in our own lives and natures. How beautifully that was exemplified in the life of Johns Hopkins, the founder of the Johns Hopkins University, — living till past middle life without having given a cent for charity, accumulating wealth, passing by the blind and the needy, seeming to have no instincts of sympathy or generosity. And then the pathetic story of how he

learned at last to give, as he turned to his dearest friend, a benevolent man, and said: "I wish that I could learn to take the same pleasure that you do in giving your money away. I cannot understand it." "You never will till you try it," said his friend. And so he began, giving a little and increasing it little by little, till he became the great benefactor of the city of Baltimore. He learned that the chief pleasure connected with money was the pleasure of giving it away. The reflective influences of giving upon the hearts of men are priceless.

Once more I welcome you all, and thank you for coming.

The PRESIDENT.— After the gracious and cordial welcome that has been given us to your state by the governor of the great state of Michigan and by the mayor of this beautiful city, and the inspiring song which we have just heard, it is thoroughly in keeping with the whole spirit of this Conference that a response should be given on behalf of the Conference; and we have requested Dr. Henderson, of the Chicago University, who was president of the Conference three years ago, to respond to these addresses.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

BY CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON.

Twenty years ago I was invited to become a citizen of this fair and honorable municipality; and, after enjoying its hospitality for ten years, I am in position to testify as to its fine quality. At heart I feel myself still to be a member of this community.

While my place in this procession of speakers almost seems to be with those who have just welcomed us, I am asked to respond to their message, so representative of all that is generous and beautiful in human life and character. In the name of my colleagues of the National Conference I thank you for your open-hearted welcome, and assure you that we shall take your message according to its spirit, and at once proceed to make ourselves at home. In turn we invite the citizens of Detroit to meet with us, and join in our deliberations. We are not assembled in the interest of any particular measure or party or scheme. We do not even pass resolutions, save those of courtesy and gratitude; and, therefore, we do not contend for personal victory, and seek only to learn the truth from each other.

In these free Conferences the traditional themes of charity and reform will be treated by experts and by apprentices. The methods of dealing with dependants of all classes will be considered by persons whose daily life is spent in some one of these manifold ministries of beneficence.

Thus we shall discuss the care of needy families in their homes, the work of public relief in almshouses and hospitals, the custody of the feeble-minded, the saving of imperilled children.

But, in addition to the customary and traditional topics, we shall be thinking of the larger, finer, higher *democratic* element of charity which is gradually attracting the attention of all serious students and workers in our field. Our distinguished leader, Mr. Paine, urged us to cultivate a *fore-looking, prophetic* spirit.

It is manifest that there is a profound discontent with both the ideals and methods which we have inherited from the past. Fortunately for the nation, the huge wage-earning class are cultivating a spirit of bitter and relentless hatred to traditional charity. So that both kinds of workers agree in the desire to introduce a new and worthier policy.

This meeting in Detroit is signalized by the first report of a new committee, which seeks to formulate this more modern democratic sentiment of fellowship and brotherhood. Eminent representatives of the movement to make the government our positive agency on behalf of all the people — a means of preventing as well as relieving distress — will bring before us the ripe results of their thinking and experience.

I may take this occasion to bring to you the greetings of the German Society for Poor Relief and Benevolence, whose officers received me so cordially as your representative at Lübeck last year. We are accustomed to think of Germany as absolutist in government; and yet, on the testimony of all the charity workers whom I met, it may be affirmed that Germany, by its system of insurance of wage-workers, has placed itself in advance of all other countries in this movement. In that great empire, which has sent to our shores multitudes of our substantial citizens to enrich our industries and our arts, they are developing a vast scheme of mutual help which promises ultimately to reduce dependence and the degradation of pauperism at least to the depraved and the degenerate.

Why should we not signalize this Detroit Conference by the appointment of a commission charged with the difficult duty of studying the best practicable method for insuring the working people against extreme need in case of accident and sickness and during the period of invalidism and helpless old age? What more significant, prophetic, and monumental action could we take? Is it not in line with the principles we have already accepted? Is it not the next logical step in the direction we are moving?

It is the death of a movement like ours to be ever threshing over old straw with dull monotony of repetition. New problems put fresh blood into old discussions.

There will always be room and need for charity. When crime has ceased, when the degrading disease of willing pauperism has been banished with small-pox and cholera, when proud patronage has been transformed into the spirit of fraternity and democratic equality, then the nobler function of charity will begin. Benevolence will always seek to bring up the slower and feebler into the common possessions of civilized society.

To the discussion of these ancient and these modern ideas we invite our hosts.

President NICHOLSON.— It is truly delightful to us to meet and welcome the old friends, and also delightful to welcome so many new ones. Our cause is universal. There is a response to its appeal from almost every heart that has in it the milk of human kindness. We are made up of all religions, yet without denominationalism, of all political factions, yet without partisanship. We have been named "The Church of the Divine Fragments." We meet in the true unity of the spirit and bond of peace, and everybody is welcome to be with us. It has been the custom for more than twenty years for the President to make an address. My subject is "A Glance at the Past, a Look at the Present, and a Vision of the Future." (Page 1.)

The President then read a message of greeting and regret at his enforced absence from Mr. Z. R. Brockway, whom he characterized as "the grand old man" of prison reform.

The following greeting was read: —

The National Conference of Jewish Charities in convention assembled sends greetings to the Twenty-ninth Conference of Charities and Correction, with the hope that the work of each in the common cause inspired by love of the fellow-man may receive the blessing of our common Father for the greater glory of mankind.

Invitations to visit the Pontiac Asylum, the House of Correction, the Metropolitan Police Department, and other institutions of the city were read, after which the Conference adjourned to the Hotel Cadillac, where a reception was given by the citizens of Detroit in honor of the officers and members of the Conference.

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 29.

The Conference was called to order at 9.15 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Rabbi Leo Franklin, Temple Beth El. The subject for the morning was "State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Correction." Mr. J. R. Brackett, president of the Department of Charities and Correction of Baltimore, Md., as chairman of the section reporting, presided during the morning, and made the report for the committee (page 123).

An address on "State Supervision of Private Charities" was made by Rev. H. H. Hart, of Chicago (page 130).

An address was made by the Rev. D. J. McMahon, general supervisor of Catholic charities of New York City (page 136).

An address was made by Mr. John Cownie, chairman of the Iowa Board of Control (page 140).

An address was made by Mr. Amos W. Butler, secretary Indiana Board of State Charities (page 144).

A letter was read from Rev. F. H. Wines, LL.D., regretting that he was unable to attend the Conference, and enclosing a brief paper on "State Control and Supervision" of public charities, which will be found in the chapter on that subject (page 147).

The following report was presented: —

1103 North Eutaw Street,
Baltimore, Md., May 19, 1902.

Timothy Nicholson, Esq., *President National Conference of Charities and Correction:*

Dear Sir,— I beg to report, for the committee appointed at the Washington Conference to have a bill passed providing for the collection of statistics of charitable and penal work.

I send herewith a copy of the last annual report of the director of the census. On page 12 are his recommendations in the matter. He has expressed himself as in hearty accord with the objects of the Conference. It was thought desirable not to have a bill introduced until the bill for the creation of a permanent census bureau was passed and out of the way. This was the wish of the director of the census. Since the passage of that bill the members of our committee, the director of the census, and a number of experts were consulted as to what the bill should cover. The result has been a bill of which I enclose you a copy. It falls considerably short of what we would like to have, but it seems to go as far as it is practicable to go at present. We must trust to the future to get more. The bill was placed in the hands of Senator McComas, who promised to introduce it. I have been unable to learn from him what is the condition of the matter, and have left the matter in the hands of Mr. Brackett of the committee and Mr. Wines.

I should like to have another chairman appointed for the committee. It seems important to have some one resident in Washington to keep an eye on the bill, and see that it is pushed along; and I would recommend the appointment of a resident of Washington as chairman of the committee. I should be glad to continue on the

committee or not, as may seem most advisable, and in either case to do what I can to promote the bill.

Please accept my resignation of the chairmanship.

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN M. GLENN,
Chairman.

AN ACT RELATING TO THE TWELFTH AND SUBSEQUENT CENSUSES, AND GIVING TO THE DIRECTOR THEREOF ADDITIONAL POWER AND AUTHORITY IN CERTAIN CASES, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled: —

That the Director of the Census is hereby authorized to collect statistics relating to special classes in institutions or in care of associations or officers of the courts, including the insane, feeble-minded, epileptics, deaf, dumb, and blind; to crime, pauperism, and benevolence, including prisoners, paupers, juvenile delinquents, neglected and orphan children, the sick in hospitals, inmates of benevolent, penal, and reformatory institutions; and to publish annually tables which shall show the movement of population in all such institutions, and such other facts, with reference to their capacity, condition, objects, methods, and results, as can be secured by correspondence, or by consulting their published annual reports; and this authorization is hereby extended to include the work of the associated charities, charity organization societies, settlements, and other associations which take the place of institutions, and serve as a substitute for the same; also of such departments of state and municipal governments as administer what is technically known as outdoor relief. And he may, at his discretion, procure from courts of record having jurisdiction in cases of felony, abstracts of their criminal dockets showing, in such form as he may prescribe, the names of all persons in custody, or at large on bail, who are charged with felony, the character of the offences charged, and the disposition made of each case, PROVIDED: That such abstracts shall not be called for oftener than once in five years, nor cover a period of time longer than one calendar year, and a sum not exceeding —— cents shall be paid for the abstract of each case returned by the proper officer of the court.

And every officer of any court, institution, or association to which any inquiry herein authorized may be addressed, who shall, if thereto requested by the Director of the Census, refuse to give true and complete answers to such inquiry or inquiries, or shall wilfully give false information, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars.

DISCUSSION ON STATE SUPERVISION OF CHARITIES.

Mr. J. R. BRACKETT.— Following this report of the committee, I ask leave to speak with more detail of my individual views on the duty of public supervision of all charitable as well as correctional institutions and on what a "reasonable supervision" is.

Observation not merely of local jails and almshouses, but of private institutions, notably of those which care for and place out children, and of hospitals and dispensaries which are often run in part for the benefit of physicians, has led me to the earnest conviction that the state, looking to the protection of the charitable and the

needy, should exercise a reasonable supervision over all correctional and charitable institutions which treat for ailments or have the care of individuals. That a charity is under private management is no guarantee against weak or ignorant management, while there is probably less likelihood of public scrutiny. Partisan politics may not enter it; but it often shows a control which knows little of good standards of work, which thinks little of learning from others. Sometimes it becomes almost the monopoly of one or two persons, while the charitable public gives credulously or thoughtlessly.

But the prevention of wholly inadequate care, and even of actual neglect, is to me only one side of the work which ought to be done by some agency in every thoroughly progressive state. Some agencies should study and report on the best ways of development of the charitable resources of the community. Painfully apparent in some of our states is the lack of proper differentiation between public aid and private charity. The line between them cannot be drawn sharply; but the two large fields of work can be plainly distinguished, in one of which public aid, and in the other of which charity, can work to the best advantage of the whole community.

Maryland's authorities have just given a signal example of this lack of supervision and study, as one after another private charity is added to the list getting state aid, absolutely without adequate supervision; and yet the one state school for the feeble in mind,—a class which the state has undertaken to care for, for the common welfare, an institution which has to refuse many urgent applications —can with difficulty get the money for another cottage. Some states do not appropriate money to any private agencies; but there is everywhere need of careful study and persistent efforts to educate public opinion, as to what the charitable resources of a community are, and how they may be co-ordinated and most effectively used.

As examples of what intelligent study of charitable conditions can accomplish, see the work of the Indiana and Ohio State Boards of Charity in reducing public outdoor relief, and of the State Charities Aid Associations of New York and New Jersey, semi-public bodies,—work done chiefly by publication of conditions and needs.

Especially important does such study seem to us as we appreciate two influences at work to-day. The first is the spread of a better understanding of the principles on which good charitable and correctional work rests; that is, of the teachings of the common experience of thoughtful workers. That better understanding is due largely to conferences, to publications, to appointments for merit, to efforts to train workers. The second influence is the growth not of socialism, but of a social consciousness, which makes more men believe in the duty of the community not only to see that the needy and afflicted are cared for, but to take all possible measures to prevent the spread of need and affliction. Witness, for example, the spreading movements for regulation of tenements, for

study of the scourge of tuberculosis by state commissions, or the care of helpable consumptives in state sanatoria.

What next should be the extent of power exercised by an agency which has such important duties as these, on which the state may rely with the greatest surety for the best performance of those duties? Ought the state agency to have executive power, so that, for example, it may grant or withhold licenses, may control the act of incorporation? Some leaders in our work believe that such powers are very helpful, if not necessary, to insure promptness and effectiveness in results. But I question if an agency which represents the state in a supervision over all charitable institutions will not be hindered, in the long run, if it can itself control the existence of such agencies. The supervision which I, for one, have in mind is the duty of visitation and report by a body of persons, representative of business sagacity and of experience in charity, who may use paid officials, but who will oversee their work with care. The spirit of supervision should be co-operative with the management of the institutions, if possible to be so. If really bad conditions cannot be remedied by friendliness first, and then by publicity, let the need of protection of the beneficiaries or the question of annulment of the charter be brought before the proper authorities whose business is, and whose bent of mind should be, to see things judicially. This kind of supervision may seem rather slow; but a supervision of private charitable effort must be very moderate, must depend chiefly on education of the public mind. Public opinion in any matters can and must be led by the few who are interested and energetic; but, if the leaders get too far ahead, they may lose their following.

The report of the committee gives me belief that such important duties of supervision and study as are here outlined can best be done, generally, by what we call a state board of charity, without large administrative duties, rather than by what we call a board of control of many state institutions. But I am learning more and more not to be a doctrinaire. What we need is *to have these very important duties done most efficiently*. If a certain form of agency is believed by the leading thinkers and workers in charity in a given community to be the one most likely to do those duties most efficiently, then the name and the other duties of that agency are, to my mind, no cause for a quarrel. But I believe that a small paid board of control is not as likely to be, anywhere, the most helpful way to reaching the end.

The pith of the matter is the *personnel* of the agency. Good laws and good administration are usually the reflection of good men: they are of great help to good men, but to expect them on paper alone to create good work is folly. Principles in laws and methods of administration on paper won't, for instance, keep partisanship out and bring public spirit in. And so the whole matter resolves itself into the old story,— to the question of how best to get leaders to

educate the public mind to the importance and dignity of the best charity work.

In this busy age of great material developments much stress is laid on business methods, on combinations and savings, on "practical" things. But let us beware of too much analogy from business in a matter of education; and progress in charity means education of the public mind.

Mr. JAMES E. HEG.— I did not intend to speak on this or any other subject, but my experience has been so unique that possibly my views on this matter may be of interest. I have been a member of a local board of trustees and a member of a state board of control. I have been a superintendent of an institution under a state board of control, afterward a superintendent of a similar institution under a local board, and now am a private citizen and nothing more.

Which is the better system,— a state board of control or a local board? I am free to say that I cannot fully decide this in my own mind. Both have advantages, and both have disadvantages. In some respects I believe the people, after a trial, are better pleased with a board of control, as in Wisconsin and Iowa. I was president of the Board of Control in Wisconsin for three years, and I know that, no matter which political party is in power, no matter what the *personnel* of the board, the work accomplished is highly satisfactory. The system was adopted more than twenty-one years ago, and was at first called the Board of Supervision. There is not now a man, woman, or child in Wisconsin who would go back to the old system, although they had a state board of charities that ranked as high as any board in any state. There were such men on it as H. H. Giles and Andrew Elmore. They had local boards that allowed the superintendents to do almost anything. The system was full of dry rot and rottenness that was appalling, in the matter of supervision of dollars and cents, as well as in the care of the unfortunates in these institutions. The board of supervision took charge of the state charitable and penal institutions, as well as other institutions receiving a dollar from the state. Every month these institutions were inspected by some of the five members of the board, and to-day Wisconsin has the best care with the greatest economy in those institutions of any state. It has perfect supervision of its public charities, its jails and poorhouses, mainly because it gives its board the right to do things that boards in other states do not have.

As between a board of control and local board, I think that the disadvantages of the board of control are that the board of control assumes the responsibilities that the superintendents ought to have. Sometimes it seems to me the superintendent does not have the chance he might have to make a record.

If I cared to make a record in any particular line, if I wanted something more than the mere position and the salary that attaches

thereto, I should not be able to obtain this under a board of control, because of the fact that they dictate the policies and virtually manage the institution, the superintendent being simply an executive officer to carry out instructions, and not being encouraged to originate any policy himself.

Mr. MAX LANDSBERG.— The question is, How far has the state the right to differentiate between the supervision of private institutions that receive state aid and those that receive no state aid? It seems to the speaker from New York that the state has the right to say to institutions that receive state aid, Do you perform the duties incumbent upon you by the contract? If they show that they do, he says that the state has as little right to interfere as to ask you how you spend your money, or as the municipality has to ask a contractor about the kind of stone he uses, if the work for which he has contracted is done according to contract. I think the municipality has not only the right, but the duty, to look into the material used. The state has the right and the duty to find out in what manner every cent of the money that is given by the state or by the public is spent. Now suppose that an institution gets money or gets assistance from the state or county, and afterward it is proven that it has a surplus of many thousands of dollars: should not the state or the public that contributed that money have a perfect right to find out why they have got the assistance they claimed for the work?

"To inspect private benevolent institutions that take care of dependent people, and especially dependent children," the speaker said, "would be equivalent to going into a private family to ask how they treat their children. We presume that every family treats its children right: if not, the neighbors are likely to know and to speak of it." We may well admit that there is very little cruelty practised in institutions; but, unquestionably, abuses occasionally occur, as the speaker himself admitted. Why, then, should not the caution of constant state supervision be taken? In his last book, just published, Herbert Spencer says that many years ago, when on the managing committee of a club, he disgusted the secretary by remarking that in matters of administration, as in matters of business at large, the maxim should be, Do not suppose things are going right till it is proved they are going wrong, but rather suppose they are going wrong till it is proved they are going right. This maxim is certainly good policy with reference to the administration of charitable institutions which take care of dependent children.

The speaker said that the state should not have the right of supervision over institutions which receive no money from public funds, because they are under no obligations to the state. It seems to me that they are under obligation to the state for their very existence, because they receive their charter which alone entitles them to care for children or other dependants. No possible harm

can come from state supervision, but much harm can arise from its absence. It should therefore be exercised in every institution whether such institution receive public money or not.

Dr. F. H. Darby, Ohio Children's Home Society.— We have a most excellent state board of charities; and, as far as they can, they make supervision. We have altogether 78 county children's homes and private institutions that have custodial care of children and supervision of children placed out. There are 88 county infirmaries, and in many of these the directors are authorized to place out and supervise children. Our Board of Charities very properly wished to extend their work of supervision, and asked the legislature to authorize them to employ an additional clerk to supervise the placed out children.

Though a matter of some contention among our legislators, the consensus of opinion here seems to be that state supervision without absolute control is quite the proper thing. If the state fixes its great seal to a charter, the chartered body should be brought under supervision. What do I do as the manager of a private but incorporated charity if I need help? Whom do I call upon if I want to catch a runaway boy? Who is the first one I ask to help? It is the strong arm of the law. A hundred policemen in our city are in quest of a boy within thirty minutes after it is known that he has run away; and so far few, if any, have gotten away. I have but to telephone to the chief of police, and it is only a short time until some policeman calls up and says, "We have found your boy." We can always call on the state for help; and that is a good reason why we should be subject to state supervision, even if the state does not give us financial aid or assume full legal control.

Dr. E. C. Runge, Superintendent St. Louis Insane Asylum.— No matter whether we are caring for the blind, the insane, or what not, we superintendents who work day and night like to have a small body of men right at our elbow all the time who are interested in our work and in sympathy with it. I believe in economy; and, if you look over the institutions of the country, I think you will find they are managed fairly economically. Some more so, and some less,— that depends on the individuality of the man at the head. But for the sake of economy do not do away with that sympathetic body of workers to whom we can go at any time for inspiration instead of going to the state capital to consult with three men who are paid for their efforts, while those people are not paid. They are people who are willing to give their help for humanity's sake. They are not politicians, because they would not take up that work if they were politicians. They are not like that ideal board of Iowa, which is not partisan because two members belong to the same party! Don't go home and have a board of control. And I would also say, Do not go home with the idea that Wisconsin has the ideal system of taking care of the insane. It has the poorest, because it is an anti-

quated system. Be proud, rather, of Michigan, and stick to its system. Leave us a board of supervision, and leave us our own boards. We want to be inspected. We want to be criticised. We want small boards to help us. I am struggling with one problem, and that is enough. Some of the best men in the country who are at the head of insane asylums are leaving because of the crushing out of their individuality. The crushing out of individuality is one of the baneful tendencies of the age, and that is the tendency in having boards of control which are chosen for motives of economy. But the people of this country are not going to look at the side of dollars and cents when it comes to the care of the insane.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Fort Wayne.— There is one thing a board of control cannot do. It cannot come between the people of the state and the institution as an impartial body to investigate alleged abuse, because, if it does, the members are investigating their own management. I should not want to be the superintendent of an institution where I could not have a board in which I had confidence, a board that should be responsible for seeing and telling how things were done, and before which I could have a fair hearing, if it were necessary.

Another point. No matter what machinery you may have, it has got to work perfectly to be of any value. I believe that the State Board of Charities of Indiana has the confidence of the state to the extent that any board of control could ever have, and that it is capable of giving impartial opinions. That is because we have had such men as Oscar McCulloch and Timothy Nicholson for so many years on the board that it has achieved that reputation, and that it stands as a perfectly impartial tribunal in cases of alleged abuse and neglect.

Mrs. ALICE N. LINCOLN, Boston.— Whether we work for public or private charities, I believe that we should be responsible to some one besides ourselves. It is excellent to have even the supervision of city hall. It makes us careful how we spend money and whom we employ. The dollars and cents are not the most important part. I do not think enough stress has been laid on the fact that, whether we have a board of control or a board of charities, the most important thing is to see that our institutions are well administered. If they are well administered, the dollars and cents will, in a measure, take care of themselves. If those in charge are conscientious, the money will be conscientiously looked after. I have been surprised this morning to hear so much stress laid on economy. There is something more important than economy. We try to administer our institutions economically in Massachusetts, but that is not the most important thing. It is that they should be well administered, and that the people who manage them shall be careful and kindly, as well as capable. I hope that too much stress will not be laid on bringing institutions down to the lowest per capita cost. With good

superintendents and good local boards, who will give careful attention to details, I think institutions can do their best work. It does not seem to me that three men can look properly after all the institutions of a state.

Mr. CHARLTON T. LEWIS.— One warning, it seems to me, is necessary after the most instructive and illuminating discussion which we have heard,— I think this warning ought to be laid to heart by us all,— and it is this: that the movement of society shows that the world is supervision mad. The tendency everywhere is to take the work of charity, as well as all other social work, out of the individual initiative, out of the hands of the man, and put it into the hands of what we call the organized state. That tendency is pernicious because of its remote and permanent influence upon social development. Charity does not need to be done by proxy: it does not need to be done by organization. I do not mean by this remark to throw any slight upon the value of charity organization as we understand it. Charity needs organization as much as industry needs it, with a view to its efficiency; but, when it takes the work out of the individual initiative, it destroys the impulses of the man. Charity needs heart; and, when it is done by machinery or by organization, it destroys nine-tenths of the value of the work. That is the tendency of the movement going on in all our states to-day, and that is the trouble with the substitution of boards of control for state boards of charity. What we need is the supervision, the criticism, of that individual well known in the community who is intelligent upon the subject, and whose heart is enlisted in it. And when you come to substitute for that the professional, the narrow, or the political supervision which is given to it by appointed boards representing the state, you take the life out of it. I have heard nothing in my time more shocking on such a subject than some of the remarks of the gentleman from Iowa. His heart and his conscience are so enlisted in the work that I should be the last man to say a word reflecting upon his personal services; but can anything be more monstrous than that the charity of a great state should be so centred in one man that all that is necessary is for him to say to the legislature, "We want more money," and the legislators reply: "Is it all right? Then you shall have it." I want my charity administered in no such way, in no such method, in no such spirit. These are not the principles, these are not the methods, by which charity reaches its true ends. We must look with the greatest jealousy upon any usurpation by the state of that share in works of mercy which belongs to the individual. There is nothing that tends more to destroy and paralyze that soul of charity to which we look for the future good of society, in the time when all men's good shall be each man's aim.

Mrs. KATE BROWNELL SHERWOOD, Toledo, Ohio.— It seems to me that the gentleman from New Jersey has taken the absolutely correct

position. When our friend from Iowa was speaking, I could not help wishing that he might be duplicated forty-seven times, so that every state might have the services of a man with such zeal, knowledge, and power to carry on work. But, after all, we must beware of one-man power in charity work. The people of Ohio do not want a board of control: they are content with a board of supervision. As soon as you put these matters under a board of control, you eliminate the personal element; and it is the personal element that we want in charity. To establish a board of control would be to destroy the progressive development of our best institutions.

Mr. Cownie was invited to close the discussion.

Hon. JOHN COWNIE.— I fear some of my remarks have been misconstrued, and in the general opposition to government of state institutions by a board of control there is a great deal of misapprehension. But the opposition manifested here is not more than it was in Iowa when the new system was inaugurated. So displeased were the superintendents of the respective institutions with the new law that some of them entered into an agreement that, should the board of control appear arbitrary, they would tender their resignations in a body. That time never came: no resignations were tendered, not a single superintendent was removed, and they now laugh as they tell of their groundless fears.

The Board of Control in Iowa is not overbearing or autocratic. It is not tearing down, but building up. It assumed charge of the state institutions with a fixed determination to provide the wards of the state with the best food, clothing, and care that it was possible to secure with the least expense to the tax-payers of the state. That this purpose has been accomplished cannot be truthfully denied by the most hostile antagonist to the system, and the present condition of the institutions themselves bears ample evidence of the truth of the statement.

The individuality of the superintendents is not destroyed, as has been stated; but, on the other hand, every encouragement is given to introduce new and improved methods in teaching in the schools and in the care of the helpless. Only recently a superintendent of one of the state hospitals employed a teacher and introduced physical culture among the patients, also organized a class among the women patients in fancy needlework, all of which was promptly indorsed by the Board of Control, and the other superintendents informed of the success of the experiment.

It must be admitted that the superintendents of the state institutions, being professional men, have had a limited experience in business methods, and to them it is a relief to have a board of control assume the business management of the institutions, thus allowing the superintendents to devote their entire time to the work for which they are better fitted by training and experience.

In the arguments made against the board of control system, the underlying thought has been that good business management was not desirable at state institutions, that business principles and philanthropy should not be associated together, and that a strict accounting for all money expended in work of this kind was not necessary. I differ most emphatically with this view of the matter, believing that in the management of state institutions the best of business methods should prevail in the expenditure of public funds, to the end that the greatest benefit may be secured, and that the largest amount possible of the necessaries of life should be purchased from the limited appropriations.

At a public gathering a short time ago the senior superintendent of Iowa institutions said in an address, "Were it not for the business methods of the board of control in purchasing supplies for all the institutions, and the favorable prices secured, it would be impossible with the enhanced values to operate the institutions with the present per capita allowance." And this per capita allowance had been reduced nearly 20 per cent. from what it was during the years of depressed values, when the new act creating a board of control went into effect, and quantity and quality of all necessaries instead of being reduced have been increased.

Much of the opposition manifested here to-day to the board of control system is the result of prejudice and ignorance as to the actual conditions as they exist in the state institutions of Iowa. Both systems have been tried in Iowa; and there is not a fair-minded, unprejudiced person in the state, who is well informed in regard to past and present conditions, but will frankly admit that never before were the institutions as prosperous as they are at present, and I am sure they will compare favorably with the best of their kind to be found anywhere.

The following committees were announced: —

Committee on Organization.— Ernest P. Bicknell, Illinois; R. W. Hebberd, New York; Charles F. Weller, Washington, D.C.; Hugh F. Fox, New Jersey; Miss Catherine Felton, San Francisco; Alexander Johnson, Indiana; James Allison, Ohio.

Committee on Resolutions.—Amos W. Butler, chairman; William Penn Lyon, George B. Robinson.

The President announced that by vote of the Executive Committee five persons had been appointed a committee on the financial affairs of the Conference, as follows: —

Committee on Financial Affairs.—Mrs. E. E. Williamson, New Jersey; Alfred O. Crozier, Michigan; Michel Heymann, Louisiana; H. H. Hart, Illinois; John W. Willis, Minnesota.

At a later session of the Conference, a commission of seven persons was appointed on the recomendation of the Executive Committee. For convenience of reference the action of the Executive Committee, with the list of names, is given here : —

The Executive Committee recommends to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, without committing the Conference to any particular system in advance of investigation, to provide for the appointment of a commission of seven persons to consider plans of so-called insurance for wage-earners in case of accident, sickness, invalidism, and old age, with special reference to their effects on dependence and crime, the commission to be continued for at least three years before making its final report.

In accordance with the above, Mr. Nicholson appointed the following commission : Dr. Charles R. Henderson, chairman, Chicago, University of Chicago ; Frederick L. Hoffman, Newark, N.J. ; Dr. S. G. Smith, St. Paul, Minn. ; John Graham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass. ; Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis, Ind. ; Frank A. Fetter, Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University ; Edward T. Devine, New York City, N.Y.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, held May 30, the following action was taken : —

Dr. Henderson moved

That a sub-committee of three from the Executive Committee be appointed by the chairman to confer with the proper authorities of the St. Louis World's Fair relative to the sociological exhibit, said committee to co-operate with the said Exposition authorities without committing the Conference financially ; that said committee have power to act.

Motion carried.

In compliance with the above the following committee was appointed : Charles R. Henderson, Chicago, chairman ; E. P. Bicknell, Chicago ; H. H. Hart, Chicago.

Adjourned at 12.15 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday night, May 29.

The Conference was called to order by the President at eight o'clock. Prayer was offered by Rev. E. H. Pence, of the Fort Street Presbyterian Church. Mr. C. F. Weller, of Washington, D.C., chairman of the Committee on Needy Families in Their Homes, took

charge of the session. The first paper was read by Mr. Robert Hunter, head worker of the University Settlement of New York, on "The Relation between Social Settlements and Organized Charity" (page 302). After music an address with stereopticon pictures was given by Mr. Charles F. Weller (page 265).

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SECTION MEETING.

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Thursday afternoon.

The section was called to order at 2 P.M. by the chairman of the committee, Charles F. Weller, Washington, D.C. The subject for discussion was, "What Part should Relief play in the Treatment of Families whose Distress is due mainly to the Husband's Fault or Defect?"

The opening paper, which was not placed in the Editor's hands, was read by S. C. Loewenstein, of the Federation of Jewish Charities, Cincinnati.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. C. M. Hubbard, of the Associated Charities, Cincinnati.— The treatment of the family of the man who is at fault through shiftlessness, indifference, desertion, or intemperance, constitutes the difficult problem of our work. So far as the man is concerned, the treatment should take some form of coercion. So far as the family is concerned, it should be administered in such a way, if possible, as not to give the man the advantage of it. Relief should be given only in the form of work wherever the wife is able to work, or, if the husband is able to work, insist that he shall do it. If he refuses and persuasion fails, the only thing to do is to proceed against him legally. In most places I think it is true, as in Ohio, that, when a husband or father refuses to support his children, he can be committed to the workhouse. It leaves society free to deal with the family in his absence. The most helpful agency is the friendly visitor and the personal influence that is made to bear upon the man and his family.

Mrs. Bacon, Toledo.— At Toledo the husband is arrested and sent to the stone-yard and made to work, and the wife receives 40 cents a day. The Humane Society agent collects the money and pays it to his family.

Mr. Hubbard.— That is a species of special legislation. It applies to Toledo, not Cincinnati.

Mr. Bleecker Van Wagenen, President of the Orange (N.J.) Associated Charities.— A sad family history, which came under the treatment of the Orange Bureau of Associated Charities, and involved many of the conditions just discussed, may be of interest.

The family consisted of a husband, wife, and three children. The man was a hatter,— shiftless, lazy, intemperate, and at times abusive and quarrelsome. Although a fairly skilled workman, he contributed practically nothing toward the support of the family, and was a constant burden upon his wife.

The bureau was appealed to at different times for help, and, having given it again and again, sometimes directly under stress of great need, and more frequently through its industrial agencies, finally refused to give any physical help longer because of the persistent neglect of the husband to do his part. It sought to, and in a measure succeeded in restraining others from giving help also, hoping to bring sufficient pressure to bear upon the man to force him to support his family. The wife was a hard-working, generous-hearted woman, utterly faithful to her husband to the end.

For three years the bureau was in almost constant contact with this family, and through the services of a friendly visitor and other means made every effort to induce or compel this man to do his duty in the home. During this period two children died, and two were born; and the family life steadily deteriorated.

The crisis came at last, when, broken down from overwork and hardship, the wife failed to rally after her fifth confinement, and fell into rapid consumption. The child born at this time died within two months.

The family was in abject want, the children without shoes, no fire, no food, and the man idle and indifferent. While anxious to prevent further suffering of the wife and children, we felt unable, consistently, to give physical aid to any extent at this time, because of the attitude of the husband; and we decided that he must be forced to work or be sent to jail.

Accordingly, the situation was talked over with him; and he was told that, if he would do his share, others would gladly assist at once. He was offered immediate work in the wood-yard, and agreed to undertake it. Some provisions and fuel were then given to the family. But the husband failed to do the work as he promised. He was seen again, and the situation once more strongly put before him. Again he failed to do his part.

A complaint was then lodged with the overseer of the poor without the knowledge of the wife. A warrant was sworn out conjointly by the overseer of the poor and an officer of the bureau, the man was arrested, and the case put through with the aid of the bureau's lawyer. The man was sentenced to hard labor in the penitentiary for three months, the longest sentence provided by law in such cases. This was on the 30th of December.

The wife, although able to be about the house, was not capable of doing any work; and, as her five weeks' old baby was also ailing, a permit was secured for both to the hospital. The two older children — a boy of twelve and a girl of nine — were taken by the married sister of the woman, who lived in the neighborhood. As she and her husband were also poor people, the bureau gave her a little aid from time to time and somewhat in the nature of a pension, took the boy to run errands at two dollars and a half ($2.50) a week. The little girl was sent to school.

The latter part of January the baby died in the hospital; and the mother grew steadily weaker until early in March, at her own request she was taken to her sister's home to die. She pleaded earnestly to have her husband pardoned and brought from the penitentiary, so that she might see him again. This request was finally granted through the kind offices of the justice who had sentenced him. The woman besought her sister to take the two remaining children and keep them in her charge, so that they should be removed from their father's care and influence. This she agreed to do.

Since the mother's death, which occurred early in April, 1897, the children have remained with their aunt. Almost as soon as his wife died, the man disappeared and has not been seen since. The children are doing well with their aunt, and growing up in a decent and self-respecting way, the girl, who is now about fourteen, being at school, and the boy assisting his uncle, who is janitor in a public school building.

In reviewing this history, several questions come up in regard to the treatment of the case: —

First. Would it not have been better to force the issue with this man at an earlier stage in our relations with the family?

Second. After the wife's death and the disappearance of the husband, should we have sought him out and endeavored to compel him to support his children instead of leaving them in the care of their aunt, where, owing to the poverty of the family, it was necessary from time to time to supplement the family means by outside help? Consider pro and con the influence upon the children.

Third. What was the cause of our utter failure to work any reform in the man? If there had been a reformatory influence exerted in connection with his penal experience, might it not have had some good effect? Could any amount or kind of friendly visitor work with this family have accomplished the desired reform?

I will not attempt to answer these questions, but leave them for your thought and consideration.

Mr. GRAUMAN, LOUISVILLE, KY., President of the Hebrew Relief Association.— I have been associated with charities for twenty years, and I have tried different methods in dealing with husbands who do not support their families. A man came to Louisville six years ago

He was an expert tailor, getting good wages; but he did not provide for his family. He had a wife and three children. The case puzzled me. The man had the knowledge and the ability to work, but declined to do it. I concluded I would try to change him by kind influences. We have three or four fraternal Jewish institutions or lodges. I saw the head men of two or three lodges, and told them to take this man and make him a member. They took him in: they made an officer out of him. It is wonderful what a change they made in a short time. For the first time, after he was elected officer, he had on a white shirt and black shoes. The next thing I heard was that he had put in full time, and the next thing that he had bought his wife some new garments. That man has a shop of his own now, as much work as he can do, employs two or three hands; and his wife is perfectly happy.

Mr. FRANK TUCKER, Secretary of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York.— The author of the paper made one unqualified statement that, when the family has become dependent through neglect of the husband to exercise the earning capacity, the wife and children should be permitted to suffer for the sake of the moral effect upon the man. He wished to know to what degree we ought to permit the wife and children to suffer in order to reach the man. Is not the woman suffering enough in the hopeless future that she sees before her, when she knows definitely that her health is running down under the struggle, that her days are practically numbered? Shall we add to that suffering by saying: No, we will not pay your rent: you must suffer because your husband drinks. You can't have coal to keep yourself warm because your husband ought to contribute to your support.

Mrs. KENNEY, Port Huron, Mich.— The city that I live in has only about twenty thousand inhabitants, but the same conditions exist in the small towns in regard to shiftlessness and desertion. The lack of work in large cities could be obviated if the country and the cities were in closer connection. There is much demand in the country for skilled and unskilled labor. One difficulty is that women will not appear against their husbands. I remember a case. A husband committed a theft and got a light sentence, then was sent to the Detroit House of Correction for assault, then two years to Jackson for a more serious offence. The woman said she would never live with him again. Then she came to me, and asked me to write a letter to him at Jackson. I said, "What do you want to say to him?" "Tell him how we miss him when we come to the table." Considering that he was a miserable drunkard, and that she had to earn all the money that went out for the table, I thought that probably she *did* miss him there.

Mr. EVANS CARRINGTON, Colorado Springs, believed that no one ought to be allowed to suffer as a means of bringing somebody else to a knowledge of his true responsibility. In Colorado a man can

be prosecuted who makes it necessary for his wife to appeal to the county commissioners.

Mr. CHARLES W. BIRTWELL, Boston.— A hundred years ago in England, if a man in a drunken fury threw his child on a hot stove or lashed it with a strap, his wife could not appear at the trial of the man for this charge. Under the common law her evidence was not competent. The English Parliament saw the foolishness of such a rule, and rectified it by statutory legislation. What is to hinder similar provisions in regard to the evidence of the wife? The legislature has simply to say in what cases the evidence of the wife will not be necessary. We must make this offence of desertion and non-support extraditable.

Dr. LANDSBERG, Rochester, N.Y.— The reader of the paper did not mean to say that women and children should suffer indiscriminately in order to punish the husband. I do not believe in vicarious suffering; but I believe that, by making one or two suffer, we can save hundreds of thousands from suffering. It is often necessary to be severe in order to be kind. The Jews who desert their families are not cruel to their wives and children, but in nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand they assume that the wife and children will not suffer. In many cases we have found that the woman is in collusion with her husband. In those cases I think our policy was correct to let the wife and children suffer for a while. In many cases the man will come back if he knows that they will suffer.

Mr. GONKIL, Dayton, Ohio.— I do not think the wife ought ever to be called upon to appear against her husband. The case can be made out fully without her. In Ohio we have amended the law so as to compel not only the husband to support the wife and children, but to compel children to support their parents, and brothers and sisters to support each other.

Rabbi RYPINS, St. Paul, Minn.— So long as you completely protect the wife, so long you will not find a remedy for the husband. I know a man who left his wife and five children and went out of town and studied medicine in another city, relying upon the fact that the Jews of that city would not allow the wife and children to starve. His supposition was correct. They were supported for three years. When he was asked to return the money that was spent upon his family, he was indignant.

Mr. BICKNELL, Chicago.— The suggestion made by Mr. Birtwell is something that we have been studying in Chicago. It is to make this offence of desertion extraditable. It is also to make the punishment for desertion involve imprisonment for considerable length of time, and we would have the earnings of the husband while in prison returned by the state to the support of the man's family. Then some neighbor or properly authorized officer ought to make the complaint, and save the wife from loss of self-respect.

Mr. GUTRIDGE, of St. Paul, said that a law had been enacted in

Minnesota which made desertion a crime. It is possible to commit a person for a flagrant violation of the law to three years' imprisonment in the penitentiary. As it is a crime, not a misdemeanor, it is possible to go after the man out of the state.

Mrs. Ross, Findlay, Ohio.— We have a law in Ohio that can prosecute and send to the workhouse or penitentiary any father who will not support his children. We go to the prosecuting attorney of our county. We give him simply the name of the father. That is all that is necessary. It is very easy to get evidence from the neighborhood when a man does not support his family. The greatest trouble is in finding the father after he has learned that such a prosecution is to be brought.

Mr. PETTEE, Boston.— In Boston we require work from every able-bodied man applying for assistance. In case of wife desertion we aid the family as if the woman was a widow. One trouble with wife desertion is failure to instruct children in early life as to proper marriage. In 135 cases of wife desertion in 1890, 50 of them had married before they were 21.

Miss WILLARD, Chicago.— I believe in giving the husband a chance. In one case we moved the family from a single dark room into better conditions. There has been a decided improvement in the man. Through the work of the friendly visitor he has come to have a great deal more self-respect, and is doing better in taking care of his family. Sometimes the difficulty is not in getting a man in another state, but in getting him when he is in your own city. If a man knew that his home would be broken up, it might make a difference about the matter of his disappearing.

Mr. MITCHELL, Boston.— While it seems really heartless at first thought to take children away from their parents, it is at the same time working beautifully. It would be good to have an extradition law, but there would be great difficulty in enforcing it. Deal with each family separately: give it your confidence and your friendly advice.

Mr. BUTLER, St. Vincent de Paul Society, New York.— The question is simply as to whether we shall aid the family or not. We must treat deserted families as we treat any other destitute family; The question as to how to treat the husband comes properly in the correctional section. I would advise charitable organizations to refrain as much as possible from punishing members of the families in which they are interested. We have spoken of legal influence; but our first act in our society is to turn over such men to the clergymen, to try to cure the disease in the man.

Mrs. Bacon, of Toledo, was asked to speak on the Toledo law.

Mrs. BACON, Toledo.— The law was drafted by the Hon. James M. Brown, president of the National Humane Society, for the benefit of Toledo. A man who deserts his family is now a criminal. We had

last winter an agent in the State of Ohio whose duty it is to get those husbands who desert their family in any state of the Union, if they can find them.

QUESTION.— How many cases were brought into court last year?

ANSWER.— I think we prosecuted four or five cases. Last month we received $285 from delinquent fathers.

FRANK TUCKER, New York.— So far as my experience goes, there is no one method of dealing with the problem that will work effectively in all cases. The first sign of ability to deal with the problem is to recognize that it is a social problem of the utmost difficulty, that it is a problem of the community, not of the wife. The material relief is a mere incident in the problem, and plays no such part as the representative of organized charity who comes into contact with the family. The family must be considered as a unit. We must bring upon every individual case every influence the community affords; and, if material aid is necessary, we will use it.

Mr. S. J. BARROWS, of New York, said he had waited two hours and a half during this discussion to hear some one utter the word "probation." It may be necessary to use persuasion, and it may be necessary to use coercion; and both may be represented in probation. On the first of last September a new probation law covering the state of New York went into effect. It has been very useful in just such cases. Formerly men were sent to Blackwell's Island, where it was impossible for them to earn anything for their families; but the report of Judge Duel, president of the Board of City Magistrates, showed that in three months hardly a case had been disposed of in this way. Sentence had been suspended; and, through the exertions of the probation officer and the threat of imprisonment, many had been induced to go to work. If there is a meaner man than the husband who deserts his wife, it is the shiftless husband who won't go away, but relies upon his wife to support him. He had recently such a case to treat. The man was brought into court, and given another chance; and, when he found that the alternative was work or imprisonment, he went to work. Probation will not cure every case, but it will be effective in many. In some cases it is possible to assign the man's wages to the probation officer, who then sees that the man has enough for his support, and a certain amount is paid to the family. A probation officer in Lynn, Mass., had collected some $4,000 in this way.

Mr. J. R. BRACKETT, of Baltimore, wished to emphasize what had been said on probation by the last speaker. At the Congress of 1895 this whole question was discussed. At that meeting Mr. George W. Swan, city missionary of Norwich, Conn., told us how he did it. He had the confidence of the judges of the criminal court. Through his personal influence, men were reclaimed, and thousands of dollars were paid over to the wives of families.

Mr. MARCUS POLLASKY, of Detroit, thought there was an element

of danger in putting on the statute books a law for the prosecution of deserting husbands. We must not overlook the melancholy fact that in bringing back to a deserted wife the man who must be coerced to live with her we may be entailing upon her a greater hardship.

Mr. RUBOWITZ, of Chicago, told of a case in which a man had deserted his wife in Cleveland and come to Chicago. Instead of beginning by prosecuting the man, he used moral suasion, and the man authorized his employer to keep back $5 a week from his wages for the benefit of his family; and the final result was that the man sent for his wife and children to join him in Chicago.

Miss BRYSAN, of Kentucky, wished to know how to find enough men to become friends of the kind of men they were discussing. The trouble is to find visitors who can exercise this needed influence.

Dr. SANFIELD, of Memphis, president of the Tennessee Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals and Children, said that in many cases, after they had tried everything upon the higher plane of moral action, it was better to invoke the law. A man left his family, and went to Indianapolis. We supported the family; but when I wrote to him that I had employed an attorney, and that he would go there and sell out everything in his barber-shop, he sent for his family. The mere threat that he would have to lose his property and be prosecuted for his inhumanity to wife and children had the necessary effect. Whenever we can employ love, let us employ it. Where we fail, let us invoke the law.

Mr. MICHEL HEYMANN asked for information concerning the states which have laws with reference to husbands abandoning their wives. He was answered that the Boston Associated Charities had printed a pamphlet covering the subject.

Mr. LOEWENSTEIN, who read the opening paper, closed the discussion. There is no doubt that in handling these cases we should resort to other means than forcible ones. All possible methods of moral suasion should be used, but I certainly did mean that in certain cases it is proper to have a certain amount of suffering. I did not mean to imply that the family should be allowed to suffer to the extreme point. You have to handle each case as a special problem. You cannot devise any scheme to meet all cases. One speaker mentioned probation. I think it is possible in the Ohio law to get a quasi-satisfactory result without the appearance of the wife. It has been our practice to work through the Humane Society; and the Humane Society can have the man brought before the police court, by which, under bond, he can pay a certain amount to the support of his family. Referring to Mr. Tucker's point as to whether we have a right to increase the misery of the family, I think it is very doubtful as to whether we do increase the misery of the family when it has been practically broken up by the delinquency of the husband.

Friday afternoon, May 30.

The section convened at 2 P.M. with Mr. Weller in the chair.

A paper on the "Status of Organized Charity of the West" by Miss Catherine Felton, of San Francisco, was read by Clarence Thwing, of Seattle (page 295).

DISCUSSION.

Professor BLACKMAR, of the State University of Kansas, said the paper had made a very good presentation of many of the conditions which exist in the Middle West. The field is very large, the workers are few, and these workers are not well prepared for their work; and there is no general sympathy with the work by the public. There are in Kansas a certain number of people who want to use the public in order to help themselves. There is a system in Kansas, as in other states, whereby people are hurried out of town. We have a travelling community who are working each separate town in their own way. After they have worked the town, they represent themselves as helpless, and ask for transportation to the next town. The other day a man came to our agent, and said, "I want some help"; and the agent said, "I can only give you work on the rock pile until I find what you can do." The man swore, and said he would have help or he would beg. The agent said, "You begin to beg in this town, and the policemen will take hold of you." The man went down to the station, bought his ticket, and went out of town. There is a growing sentiment in the West for better administration of charitable and penal institutions and of the problems connected with them.

Mr. LEO FRANKEL, New York.— This tramp question has been a bugbear of all societies. The man goes from city to city. The section would perhaps be interested in the transportation question, particularly as it has been handled by our sister conference, the National Conference of Jewish Charity Societies, which two years ago adopted a series of transportation rules. The various constituent societies are bound only morally by these rules; yet the bond has been sufficiently strong so that at the meeting which we held here this week the fact was disclosed that an exceptionally small number had broken these rules. We divide the people into two classes, transients and others. Transients are those who have resided in the community for a period less than nine months. We assume that, if they reside longer than that in a place, they belong to the community in which they live. It is the duty of the community before forwarding that man to make application first to the receiving city as to the possibility and advisability of granting him transportation. The applicant is required to have some one to whom he may be sent in the receiving city, so that an investigation can be made in that

city. If the reply is favorable, the man is sent on. It seems to me that it might be possible for this Conference to establish a system of co-operation in reference to the transportation part of it.

Mr. SENIOR, Cincinnati.— An important item in our regulation is that, after you have determined that the man is acceptable at the city of destination, it is the duty of the forwarding city to pay his transportation through to the point of destination. We found in our investigation of the evil that a man starting at St. Paul, who wanted to go to New York, appeared before the charity organization societies of twelve different cities before arriving in New York. He had to appear before twelve different boards, and he went by a circuitous route. We have arranged a telegraphic code to be used by various cities, with a list of all organizations subscribing to the agreement. You can practically get a letter in about fifteen or twenty words.

Mr. TUPPER.— Suppose a person is not accepted, what do you do with him then?

Mr. SENIOR.— We take care of him at the point of origin. If we find that his story is unfounded, we say, You are telling an untruth, but we will give you work here if you are willing to work. He usually disappears.

Mr. DEVINE, of New York, thought that there would be more difficulty of applying this method to all other charitable agencies for the reason that their relations are much more complicated, and because public authorities are engaged in transporting transients.

Mr. EVANS CARRINGTON, Colorado Springs.— Our idea is that the associated charities should be so organized that it should be in a position to meet every kind of a demand. We regard it as fundamental that we should have a relief department as well as an organizing department. In Denver they appropriate a certain percentage of their revenues to different institutions that are in federation with them. We do nothing of the kind. We do not vote a single dollar to any institution.

A letter from the secretary of the mayor of St. Louis was read, of which the following is the substance: —

Since the present mayor has had charge of the affairs of this city, a suggestion was made by Mr. McClain, General manager of the St. Louis Provident Association, that charity institutions of this city were being greatly imposed upon by other cities. Mr. McClain at the same time kindly offered his efficient corps of assistants here, and their associated offices and assistants in other cities, to help in some way to put a stop to this abuse, and to investigate and report upon the advisability of giving transportation to any applicant who applied for same.

In this way the three main points to be ascertained can be furnished: first, never to give transportation to an unworthy case; second, whenever transportation is given, that it be an adequate amount to carry the applicant to the point of destination, and that only after full investigation has been made, which investigation shows that there is some one at the point of destination who can and will provide for the applicant; third, never to give transportation to any

applicant until a thorough investigation has been made as to his means of support at the point of destination.

To show that this is not a theoretical but a practical treatment, I beg to say that, after a year's strict adherence to these rules, we have found the result to be an excellent one to both the executive office and our charitable institutions. . . .

In probably one-half the cases the report made by the applicant is found to be untrue. He is then turned loose, and given to understand that the city will neither support nor transport him, and that he must provide for himself. Probably in one-half of the remainder of the cases the party or institution furnishing the transportation thus far forwards the amount sufficient to carry the party to his point of destination: the other half of the remaining cases are returned to the place of starting.

Now, if some resolution can be introduced, based on the actual work of the year thus set out, with request that before transportation is furnished some similar course be pursued, it will at least cut off this practice and go a long way toward putting an end to such abuse.

If this resolution could be made broad enough to include executive offices of cities, I will gladly take up the matter with them by correspondence, and think I can secure their indorsement of such a plan.

This office will send as its representative to the convention to be held in Detroit next week Sergeant James L. Dawson, who has practically charge of this work in this office, and is thoroughly conversant with the working of such a plan after a year's strict adherence to it.

Mr. McClain has kindly offered to do all in his power to secure some action along the line thus set forth. You will find Sergeant Dawson thoroughly awake to the subject, and he will gladly assist you in any way you may designate.

Yours very truly,

JAMES G. McCONKEY,
Secretary to the Mayor.

On motion of Mr. Devine it was voted that a committee should be appointed by the chairman to draw up a letter adopting rules similar to those of the Hebrew charities, to be sent out to every one responsible for the transportation of applicants.

The chairman announced the following committee: Mr. Senior of Cincinnati, Mr. Dawson of St. Louis, and Professor Blackmar of Kansas.

On motion of Mr. Devine the chairman of the section, Mr. Weller, of Washington, was made chairman of this committee. This committee reported later, but for convenience of reference the report is inserted here, as follows: —

Ladies and Gentlemen,— Your Committee on Transportation of Dependants beg leave to offer the following report: —

That we recommend the publication and distribution of a pamphlet prepared by this committee, setting forth the evils of free transportation, and containing a set of rules and a telegraphic code suggested for use of all associations and agents;

That members of the National Conference of Charities be invited to contribute toward a small contingent fund to defray the expenses of publication of said pamphlet and for correspondence;

That, until such rules are sent out, the use of the Rules for the Regulation of Transportation used by the National Conference of Jewish Charities is suggested. These rules may be obtained by applying to either Mr. Max Senior, of Cincinnati, or J. L. Dawson, Mayor's Office, St. Louis.

This committee was continued, and special subscriptions were taken by D. I. Green toward a fund for publishing the committee's report and sending it to all appropriate organizations.

Mr. HANSON, Associated Charities of Kansas City.— The social or friendly visiting work is recognized as the foundation principle of our work, and is being rapidly developed. We have made a good beginning with a penny savings-bank, and have about 500 depositors among the very poor. There is another savings system organized by the Woman's Temperance Union. The Associated Charities is the clearing-house for twenty-six different charities. During the past year we have started two social settlement movements. We are encouraging people to clean up and beautify their homes. We shall have a municipal camp organized, a sort of a school for civil government. There is a movement on foot for establishing a settlement in one of the neediest districts in connection with the day nursery. We had a fire in Kansas City about two months ago which wiped out eighty houses and left over one hundred families homeless. A subscription was started. The secretary of the Associated Charities was chairman of the Committee of Investigation and Distribution. $13,000 was raised and apportioned by the committee. The fund was too large, but it was expended with the least harm because some one with experience was given a chance to direct it.

Mrs. GEORGE, Associated Charities of Denver.—The charity idea is spreading well. Quite recently the charity organization office was removed from the court-house to a nine-room house, which is the headquarters of the charities of the city. Since going there, we have had applications only from those who were needy or disabled. Ten years ago the exaction of work in exchange for relief would not have been tolerated in Denver. The Denver charity organization has a board of trustees, fifteen in number, from among the best business men. They raise all the money from the different societies, which number sixteen. The city gives $9,000, and about $17,000 is raised by private subscriptions. This money is put into a common fund, and distributed quarterly among fifteen or sixteen societies. We have at the central office an emergency fund of $5,000. We do not have to run around and get this money from individuals, when we need to relieve particular cases. The Humane Society does its work on its appropriation from the charity organization. We have a Visiting Nurse Association which has $9,000. The Jewish Relief Society receives $1,500 or $1,600, and Jewish cases are referred to that society. There is a Catholic orphan asylum and a Protestant orphan asylum,— in all sixteen societies. After fourteen years' experience we feel the plan is a good one.

QUESTION.— Are there public relief funds besides the amount given to this common fund?

Mrs. GEORGE.— The poor commissioners have a fund of $100,000. I should say that the different societies also raise separately about as much again as the $26,000 we raise.

Mr. BRACKETT.— Does the fact that the city gives this large amount of money in a lump sum to the Associated Charities make it difficult to get money from individuals? And does the fact of this large relief fund affect in any way the effort made by your agents to get individuals to help in special cases?

Mrs. GEORGE.— Our people are very generous, and they do help a great deal in special cases; and the fact that the city gives that money does not hinder other people. There has never been any dissatisfaction about the division of the funds. The amount is given according to the work of the societies and the number of people they have helped the previous year. Two county institutions are supported out of the $100,000 administered by the poor commissioners. There is a county farm and a county hospital. The population of Denver is 150,000. The number of charities in Denver has been decreased by this system. We have several less than when we adopted it.

QUESTION.— Does every society collect in addition to the funds they get?

Mrs. GEORGE.— They are allowed to collect from people who do not contribute to the charity organization fund. We have only 500 subscribers, but these 500 give largely.

Mr. VANE, Aurora, Ill.— The supervisors in our town of 30,000 inhabitants will only give relief to one recommended by the district visitors of the charity council. If they get a request for help, they send it to the visitors.

Professor BLACKMAR, Lawrence, Kan.— Lawrence is a town of between 11,000 and 12,000 people. Douglas County has about 40,000. The plan of charity giving is to have a township trustee who is a charity commissioner, and the mayor of the city is also a commissioner. Each separate township is anxious to get as much of the public fund as it can, because some other town will get it if it does not. The mayor helps people, especially before election time. $135,000 was spent in this kind of relief. When we try to help somebody up, the mayor, through the marshal, would help him down. We induced the mayor to make our secretary the agent, and our agent was finally appointed county commissioner. The result is that, instead of spending $10,000 in out-of-door relief, we have reduced it to between $3,500 and $4,000, including the salary of the county commissioner.

Mr. EAGLESTON, Columbus, Ohio.— For a number of months past, owing to a change in conditions, the Associated Charities has done the investigating for the city poor department; and no relief has been given except on the recommendation of the Associated Charities. Columbus has a population of 150,000. It costs the

city for coal, groceries, and shoes the sum of $1,874. Of course there are private charities in the city that do their usual work. I visited a city of about 40,000 people within six weeks, and was told that it costs about $1,600 a month to take care of the poor,— a city one-fourth the size of ours,— so that I am satisfied that clever investigation will reduce the amount required for relief.

Professor COOLEY, of the University of Michigan, referred to university teaching as influencing public opinion. He tries to instruct students in the spirit, principles, and methods of modern charity. A university course, properly given, ought to develop a certain breadth of view,— a conception of all philanthropic problems as a whole. The student ought to see these things as one single problem or as one phase of a general problem. There is, I think, an increasing interest in universities in charity work as a career. I am inclined to think that in the future trained university graduates will be more in demand.

Mr. DAVIS, Richmond, Va.— I am superintendent of the public charities of Richmond. When I took charge of the office in 1886, the annual output was $10,000 a year. I have reduced it to $5,000, and have kept it down. The population of Richmond is 100,000. During my term of office we never had a hundred white paupers. We have a hundred and twenty colored. I am heartily in favor of organized charity, but we can perhaps be too systematic and too economical. I believe that, in many cases where there is a prejudice against tramps, if we reach down and give them a hand, we can resurrect what God has put into them,— manhood.

Mr. GOWAN, Portland, Me.— Two years ago there was a scandal about our poor department, and also in our county, as to the way the prohibition law was enforced. So the people elected a man to enforce the law. Two years ago they spent $12,000 in our city of 60,000 for outdoor relief. In the first year we reduced that expenditure to $9,500; and last year, aided by shutting up the rum-shops, our expenses were reduced to $6,250. A year ago our mayor was invited to send delegates to Washington to this Conference. Mr. Rose and myself were sent as delegates. We were thoroughly imbued with its spirit, and we have introduced some of the things that we learned in Washington. We also have been at work all over the state. Maine has no state board of charities.

Mr. THWING, of Seattle, called attention to the difficulties experienced in the West. There is lack of supervision. There is need for a more general charitable sentiment. Our cases are of temporary need rather than cases of chronic poverty. The fact that there is a temporary need makes it incumbent upon us to handle relief funds: that is one of our difficulties. This diverts our attention very largely from the more pressing need of developing public sentiment. And there is a large opportunity in the third place for more thorough work.

Monday afternoon, June 2.

The section convened at two o'clock, chairman, Charles F. Weller.

Mr. A. W. McDougall, general secretary of the Orange (N.J.) Bureau of Charities, read a paper on "How should the Relief of Needy Families be organized in Cities of Less than Sixty Thousand Inhabitants?" (page 278).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. DEVINE said that, while the paper was supposed to refer to small cities, it would be profitable to print the same paper again, substituting the word "large" for the word "small." He strongly commended the paper, and reread portions which he considered of special value. This paper had been written out of the author's experience, and not out of the old Conference reports. That experience was equally good for large and for small cities.

Miss VENN, Aurora, Ill.— Aurora has 30,000 inhabitants. Every church has an aid society, and many cases get aid from each society. We have formed a charitable council, composed of directors from each society. The city is districted. We have an office in the city hall; and the chief of police is, *ex officio*, a member of the society, and he can telephone for an agent if he wants one. We have no paid worker.

Mr. BINGHAM, of Indianapolis, spoke of employment bureaus. In the conduct of these bureaus, employment should not be given to young people, as it takes the life and ambition out of them to go out and do odd jobs, such as washing or scrubbing. Care should be taken not to allow the worker to get the idea that it is the business of the employment bureau to provide them with work right along.

Mr. HOFFMAN, of New York, spoke of applicants for whom every effort is made to obtain permanent employment; but they do not want it, and will not take it.

Mr. MCDOUGALL explained that the women who are sent out to work are women who have children at home, who are widows or whose husbands are sick. They get a day's work here and there three or four days in the week; and they have perhaps two days to work at home and take care of their children, and are practically independent. The children of the women thus employed can go to the day nursery when their mothers are at work. There are many women with a large number of children who must have supplementary help, and we believe in giving it to women who care better for their children than if they were in an institution.

Mr. POND, Oberlin.— Our town has 4,080 people. The Associated Charities have been organized about ten years. It is a small town with little poverty and little wealth, but one of our earnest

philanthropic ladies thought we ought to have a charity organization society. Every church in town having a benevolent society is invited to appoint one representative on our Associated Charities. The board thus composed meets every month except in the summer season. We have a band of visitors who meet frequently with the inspector. No salaries have been paid except to our dispenser of charity, who gets, I think, about $50 a year.

EVANS CARRINGTON, of Colorado Springs, said the paper was one of the most admirable that he had ever listened to. The author has a thorough grasp of the problem, and knows how to tell what he knows. So far as friendly visitors are concerned, we feel that it is better to pick up our friendly workers here and there as we discover their qualifications.

Mrs. MOORE, Portland, Me.— We have had a charity organization in Portland, Me., for twenty-nine years, and have been slowly gaining co-operation with many benevolent societies. Portland is famous for its benevolence. This is known throughout the surrounding towns, so that people move in for the winter, it is said; and we have reason to think so. We have friendly visitors. We have the same trouble in getting competent persons. We have a conference occasionally of the visitors of the various charitable organizations.

Miss WHITMAN, of Washington, D.C., said that Washington followed very much the lines of Mr. McDougall's paper. She felt that it is a good thing to be a general practitioner and in touch with everything going on. She had learned a good deal from the church visitors.

Mr. BICKNELL, of Chicago, spoke of the later and very important function of associated charities, that they may be the channel for the expression of public sentiment in regard to various movements and reforms. There are too many scattered and sporadic attempts in different quarters to bring about certain things. It is like shooting a good many balls against a stone wall with no effect, whereas the same number of balls melted up and fired in one ball would have smashed it to pieces. Another phase of the work is neighborhood work as contrasted with individual work. If we can take up conditions which affect families in neighborhoods, in wards, and in whole towns; if we can do something that is going to elevate the common standard of living,— we are accomplishing great good, and we are bringing about changes that we can never possibly bring about through individual work.

QUESTION. Is it wise for a society in a smaller city to capture those movements?

Mr. BICKNELL.— The danger of capturing them as a society is that it might lead to a narrowing of interests. That goes back to what your society is, what it comprises, who are in it. It is a question which cannot be answered categorically.

Mr. VAN WAGENEN, Orange, N.J.— The Orange Bureau of Chari-

ties has taken the initiative, or had an active part, in the formation of the Children's Aid Society's day nursery, now independent, a kindergarten which has now been taken up by the public school system, an organization for supplying public baths, a committee of ladies called the Civic Sanitation Society, who have employed a woman inspector to report all unsanitary conditions, a citizens' committee of fifty to take up the liquor question. These organizations are independent, although closely affiliated with ours. This work was not done in a public way; it was not done as our work: it was the personality of Mr. McDougall which accomplished it. He met this individual and that one, and talked about it and worked it up; and the Associated Charities did not appear as the organizer. For six years we were a bureau. After that we became an associated charities. That came about when we formed the Orange Conference of Charities. It is made up of delegates from all the societies of the Oranges, some sixteen in number. The conference discusses questions relating to the welfare of our locality.

Mr. ALMY, of Buffalo, said that in Buffalo they had for many years done outside work, such as that relating to tenement-house reform, the establishment of juvenile courts, playgrounds, a chattel mortgage law, a provident loan association. It is splendid work, but the danger is that it overshadows the special work of the society. Be careful that this conspicuous work does not put into the shade the quiet work which is the real object of the society.

Mr. DEVINE, of New York, did not wish the impression to go out that it was the plan of the New York society to capture all social movements. It is fair to say that the New York society has been attached to many more agencies that have been separately organized than have remained permanent features of the society. It is purely a practical question. If the situation is such that you can get better results by keeping your new movement as a department of your society, do not allow any merely theoretical principle to stand in the way of your doing so. If you can get better results by organizing them separately, then by all means adopt that form of organization.

Mr. STONAKER, of Colorado, wished light on the subject of organizing in communities so as to bring the public officials who distribute poor relief into line.

Mr. BRACKETT, of Baltimore, agreed with the idea that we must be careful that we do not let the extensive principle of our work bear away the intensive. We cannot lay down a principle: it is purely a practical matter. They had a labor bureau in Baltimore connected with the charity organization society, but gave it up because it hurt the work very much. It was work which could be done through the ordinary bureaus, and it took much time from the work of uplifting needy families. My advice to those in Cuba was simply to try to get the best educated and most intelligent persons to start any work that needed to be done. The splendid paper they had

heard and the splendid work done in Orange was largely a personal work.

Mr. MOHLER, of Fort Wayne, Ind., thought that, however poor the personal visitation may be, it is better than none at all. They had had the same difficulties to contend with as in other places, but the best they had accomplished had been done through friendly visitation.

Mr. BOVART, Portland, Me.— We are all agreed that the secret of success is personality, but what we want to know is the best kind of organization. The secretary of the Portland society does an incredible amount of work; and yet she has the office open but one hour each day, from eleven to twelve o'clock, and a large part of the season there is absolutely no central office. A thoroughly organized charity work in a city must have its office open all the time; and everything in the way of charity work must be referred to the central office, and that means a paid officer.

Miss BIRTWELL, Cambridge, Mass.— I agree with one speaker that personal service is the root of the whole matter, but friendly visiting must not be easy-going and spasmodic. The most valuable worker that you can get in associated charities is the one that can train friendly visitors; and we have fewer people in the country, I think, that know how to train friendly visitors than we have in any other work. To do valuable work, it must be continuous work. Two or three paid officials cannot do much continuous work with their families: it must be done through friendly visitors who keep closely in touch with the trained worker at the head of the office. I have always been sound and orthodox in holding that a charity organization society could not profitably undertake relief work. Historically, it has been of great value to take that position. We are only safe in abandoning it because we have held it. Twenty-five years ago we did not have the trained workers who appreciated the relation which relief bears to society as a whole.

I have been asked in regard to the relation of our work to college work. I am from Cambridge. My office is about a mile from Harvard College. Professor Peabody has very valuable courses on Economics and Social Ethics. There is also a system of student volunteer work and a director of the work. Students are encouraged to take cases which are in line with their future professional work. A student who is going to study medicine may be sent to the Children's Hospital in Boston: he gets in touch with the child. When the child is discharged, he will follow it to his home. If he is to be a lawyer, he will be assigned to a case in which there is some legal problem involved. So these students are encouraged to identify themselves with intelligent charity movements and to help organize them. The result is that Harvard students are encouraged to organize societies when they go out, and some of them will choose charitable work as a profession. The young men of Harvard have estab-

lished a reading-room, which has developed into a college settlement. Some of the seniors and post-graduate students are sufficiently trained to take from the director a good deal of the responsibility. The director has had in times past a salary, but now gives such time as he can. There is a committee of students and professors.

Mr. McCLAIN, of St. Louis, wished to find out what the St. Louis Provident Association lacks. It already has registration (70,000 cases are on file in the office), it has secured co-operation, it has industrial agents, and, so far as physical equipment is concerned, it is the best equipped organization in the United States. It has two laundries, two nurseries, two kindergartens, a wood-yard. It has trained nurses, it has savings-banks; but it has also a relief department. He had not been able to learn why relief should not be given. Care must be taken not to give too much. The reports of the association will show that, while the population is increasing, the amount of relief is decreasing. A school of philathropy has been established, running for six weeks in the spring. Is it not just as safe, with wise management, for the charity organization society to distribute relief as it is to send the applicant to some other person or society to get it?

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday morning, May 30.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 9.15 A.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. L. S. McCollester of the Universalist church. The subject for the morning was Destitute and Neglected Children. The chairman of the committee, Mr. C. W. Birtwell, took charge of the session, and read the opening paper.

INTRODUCTION TO DISCUSSION.

BY CHARLES W. BIRTWELL, GENERAL SECRETARY BOSTON CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY.

We are here to study together how we may better serve the unfortunate. Large measures, general movements for their welfare, demand consideration. But, however large the measures, however general the movements, are we not seeing more and more clearly that, to be effective, they must take their origin in definitely determined human need, in human nature as we find it, in the individual, in the "case," shall I say?

A few weeks ago a young Italian clergyman came to talk with me about his plans for the poor Italian families among whom he had come to Boston to work. He was eager, he said, to hire a house where he could care for the superabundant children in these families. He thought that, if he could raise enough money to care for ten or twenty, he could do fine things for them, and in time the work would grow. I told him that the evident keenness of his interest was good to see, but that, of course, there was need of careful consideration as to the way in which to proceed in regard to these children. The first question was whether they needed to leave home. "Oh," he said, "they are so poor!" "But," I said, "will you break up every family that is poor? Must the poor, in addition to their poverty, suffer separation, parents from children, brothers and sisters from one another? If a family is making a brave struggle against misfortune, would you not rather help them fight it out together? The question is not merely whether they are poor, but whether they are holding their own or gaining against their poverty, or it is breaking them down, demoralizing, ruining them." "Oh, yes," he said, "but I could do such lovely things for the children. I could teach them so much." "But," I said, "they can go to the public schools; and how can you hope to take the place of their parents and their home life?" "Oh," he still said, "I could do so much for them." "Well," I said, "pick out your hardest case and bring it to us." "I can tell you now," he replied, "what is my worst case."

He told me of an Italian widower with five children, the eldest ten years of age. He was uncertain whether he would take three or five of these children in charge, but I pointed out to him what a fine spectacle this family presented according to his own description. The man was a steady wage-earner, and had secured an excellent housekeeper. He loved his children passionately, and they were fond to the last degree of him and of one another. Indeed, the man was

beloved of all the children in the neighborhood. It appeared that he had been running behind financially, that the bit of money that had been saved before the mother died had been spent, and debts were piling up. "Now," I said, "how unfortunate if we must destroy that home, poor, to be sure, but how beautiful! And, after all, what is a home but a place where people bound together by affection may work out with what bravery they may the problems that life brings to them. Would we go about making things easy, destroying heroism? We may see a way to enable the poor man and his children to continue their home life. Perhaps we can get his wages raised. Or we may secure for him money enough from month to month to make the ends meet. We must do this discreetly, delicately, but what a priceless thing we shall get for our money!"

Not one sign of agreement thus far had my friend expressed. I told him that I hoped he did not think I was too strenuous in the matter, and that I trusted that we could keep in each other's company in working out his plans,— that I could only utter what was in my heart. He turned on me suddenly, and said, "Let me tell you something." The final crushing argument was evidently coming. He said: "When I was at the seminary, I had classes of children. I hated them. They were in my way. I hit them." Astonished, I said, "You hit them!" "Yes, I hit them; for I hated them. Then," he said, "I got married. I have children and a home. Now I love children. I see what you mean. I think you're right."

I am only saying that the study and service of the individual case is the foundation, and that charities for children are under the same obligation of knowledge, of investigation, as is recognized, for instance, by the charity organization societies. Most of the problems of the latter are involved in the applications so lightly and self-complacently passed upon by the agents or committees of too many child-helping agencies and institutions. But there are signs of a change. In some cities the charities for children are tapping the reservoirs of facts in the charity organization records. In New York the applications for the public care of children are referred for investigation and report to the Charity Organization Society. In Boston the city trustees for children are doing an increasing work of advice and guidance, as distinguished from actual support. Some of the day nurseries employ a paid investigator, and an increasing number of the child-helping societies are adopting the policy of sparing no pains to make investigations thorough.

Now is investigation — thorough, sympathetic, intimate — anything more than the natural first step in the effort to individualize each child, and is not this individualizing the aim and problem of both of the groups most largely represented in this section of the Conference,— the institutions and the placing out agencies? Back of the different methods have we not this common purpose? I take

it that we shall agree that into whichever method of caring for children, the institution or the placing-out, we throw our energies, we all are anxious to reach and encompass the very life of each child, and that the difficulties in doing so under either method are many and serious.

Our section has sometimes been rather disturbed over the seeming conflict of its two largest groups. May we not feel the thrill of unity and sympathy as we consider together how under both methods this identical aim may be promoted,— the passionate service of each individual child?

Under either method the thorough preliminary investigation and study to which I have referred bring us to know the child's past, to understand his temperament and situation, and may link us to him, and be the beginning of an enduring personal relation.

I shall ask institution officials and placing-out workers to tell us how, after the child is taken in charge, they safeguard themselves against the loss of the one child in the mass, how they insure the personal service of each child, first saying myself a few words about the problem as it appears to me in the work of placing children in families.

In the first place, we must know the family; for the family is to become part of the life of the child. In this investigation my reliance for the *initial* test as to the essential fibre of the family and its fitness to receive any child is not interviews, nor references, nor visits, but the verdict of three or four to seven or eight people selected from fellow-townsmen who have "wintered and summered" the applicants, and to whom is addressed, in envelopes not bearing the address of the society, and of different styles, so that a little shower of them falling at one time on a country post-office shall not attract attention, a letter which runs thus: "I am considering the question of placing a child with Mr. and Mrs. ——.

"To decide this important question, I need to know the rugged truth in regard to *the character of the applicants and their family, their home life and surroundings*, and whether a child would find with them *a thoroughly happy home, kind and intelligent care, and moral training.* It is earnestly desired that you will write us frankly about *all the members* of the household.

"They have not given you as a reference, and do not know that I am writing you. Will you kindly assist me in my inquiry? Your response will be held strictly confidential."

This letter has been developed year after year, phrase by phrase, word by word. A recent addition for use in placing girls is the following at the close of the first paragraph,—"*and whether the men are such that you would deem it wise and absolutely safe to place a young, unprotected girl in daily association with them.*"

But, even to the family that is approved, we do not turn over the child. The selection of the family is only the beginning. We bring

the family and the child together, and practically take charge of both, at least in their relations to each other,— a most important attitude, qualified only in case of adoption.

Again, we make a great deal of the initial placing. The arrival of the child in the family must be a great event. The visitor, with us a paid visitor, to whom the visiting of the child has been definitely and permanently assigned, goes with the child, and makes often a good deal of a visit. And, as visiting and correspondence are kept up, a constantly deeper and deeper note must be struck by the visitor as he or she tries with the family, the neighborhood, the school, the church, to be all things to the child, who, God knows, needs all things.

By no means unimportant is a system of office records by which the accumulating knowledge of the child is retained, and self-operating reminders appear before each agent, if through any pressure of work or oversight an interval of inattention is threatening.

But intimacy is the keynote. Not long ago, when a new placing-out agent told me of his visit to a little fellow, and remarked that he took the boy a present of fruit because he knew it was the boy's birthday, though the boy himself had forgotten that it was his birthday, I knew that my new colleague had the placing-out instinct.

A lad of five years was brought to us by an institution. He was unmanageable, was corrupting other children, and showed signs of feeble-mindedness. Before determining finally what should be done with him, we placed him at board in a special family, called in the doctors and surgeons, and all together we set to work to study, influence, and literally operate upon the lad. Three surgical operations were performed upon him; and the little fellow, though thick of speech when he came to us, hardly able, in fact, to pronounce a word intelligibly, and apparently a subject for a school for the feeble-minded,— became a veritable chatterbox, and finally was declared by the doctors likely to become a normal child.

We do not eliminate sorrow, mishap, even sin of the most serious sort, but we can meet great difficulties without being overcome; and out of the saddest experiences there may come and do come results strange and marvellous in the extreme.

A colored girl of fifteen, of some ability and force of character, but headstrong and difficult, had been placed in a white family of intelligent, high-principled, and generous-hearted people. Her wages were one dollar a week. She had the kindest care and most thoughtful oversight, but some indiscreet colored friends whom she visited got her discontented with her wages,— as a matter of fact, we should have been willing to pay board for her, if necessary,— and in a rash moment, without consulting anybody, she suddenly disappeared. We searched for her day after day, and even night after night. We felt that we must find her; but hour after hour we were baffled. Early one morning we received a message that she had been rescued from the Charles River during the night, and was at a station-house, just

recovering consciousness. The visitor, a woman, of course, and myself were quickly at her side. The moment she was in condition to leave the station-house we brought her to my own home, where nourishing food revived her; and, gradually, she was able to reveal to us what had happened, and with her we studied what it meant and what should be done. The first few nights she had spent in boys' club-rooms with other girls she had met as she wandered the streets. Then she applied to house after house, up and down the streets, for housework, only to be met with constant refusal, until, finally, an old colored woman took her in, and within twenty-four hours initiated her into a life of shame. Cruel treatment, beatings and abuse followed soon; and at the end of a week she made her escape, and, while wandering about, late in the night, wondering whether or not to return to us, a policeman asked her where she was going. She replied, "Home." Hastening her steps, she suddenly saw the river and leaped in. For a good forty-eight hours the visitor and myself lived in the shadow of the poor child's sorrow. She did not ask forgiveness. She knew she did not need to. What it meant and what should be done was her problem and ours together; and out of all the study and doubt came, by the end of the forty-eight hours, the sure, confident conviction that Florence was a good girl, that we would ask the family to take her back, and that, if we could flash into their minds our own thought of it all, they would surely welcome her,— and not to start again from where she was when she ran away, but from the new and higher position to which this ghastly experience had brought her. With tears in their eyes they responded, and she returned to them. The disease contracted during the dreadful week, however, had undermined her constitution; and she became the victim of consumption. But the six months she lived was a period of purity and peace, of quiet happiness and high thought; and, when the end came, the visitor was with her. Difficult, indeed, it was for some who had to know the story to see how anything could be done properly with Florence but to send her to the reform school; but the result justified us. Why? *Because we knew the child and the family.*

DISCUSSION.

Hastings H. Hart, Superintendent Children's Home and Aid Society, Chicago.— To my mind there is nothing more encouraging in the lines of charitable work than the steady increase of the application of conscience to this work of dealing with dependent and neglected children. The time is not far past when it was considered that almost any one could undertake that work, and when there were no settled principles to cover it. Each organization, each institution, seemed to work for itself according to its own sweet will. But as time goes on, and as I come into contact

with the people who are conducting orphan asylums and children's aid societies and children's home societies, I find a deepening conviction that it means something to undertake to become responsible for the future of the child, to put ourselves in the place of Providence, to undertake to determine what shall be its environment, who shall influence it, what shall be its religious training, what shall be its education. It is a responsibility that one may tremble to undertake. And, as we sit in our office and see these children coming into our hands, wistfully looking to us with such a beautiful confidence that we are to be in the place of the parents of whom they are bereft, I am more and more impressed with this responsibility, and it is more and more a matter of study and prayer that we may wisely discharge this stewardship.

One particular point was spoken of by the chairman of the committee. That is the great importance of exercising care in the selection of a home for a child that is destined to be placed in a family. I am unable to agree with the chairman that the safest and best way is to make that selection through correspondence with people in the neighborhood of the applicant. The further we have gone in corresponding with the friends and neighbors of people who are applicants for children, the less we are willing to rely upon that method. We do correspond and do make inquiries, but we find that the very best people in the community will write most astonishing things about their neighbors, the minister and the doctor and the newspaper editor and the people that they do business with. If a farmer comes in once or twice a week and pays his bills promptly and seems to be a respectable man, a business man will recommend that home without scruple; yet, when we send an experienced and tried agent to look into the matter, he will not be inside the door five minutes before he will discover facts indicating that it is entirely improper to place a child in that family. The man perhaps is a "driver," he is paying for a farm, he denies himself, he expects every one else to deny himself. The child that comes into that home will have to help to pay for that farm, will be called out of bed early in the morning and kept up late at night, will have his food and clothing scrimped. We find that people are apt to be actuated by selfish ideas. When we get a letter saying, "I should like to have a good boy, weighing not less than one hundred and twelve pounds," we think we know what that means. Or, when we receive a letter, "We would like to take a girl into our family: we will make her a member of the family and give her all the privileges of the home, and will not expect her to do any work that she is not able to do," — when we get a letter like that, and find that there is a child two years old in that family, and that there is no help employed, we hesitate about sending the child there. We want these children to learn, of course, to be industrious, to be helpful: we expect them to do as an own child would do; but it is our duty to see that the school privileges are secured, and

that they are really treated as members of the family, and, in order to do this, we must study that family. It must be studied by a trained, experienced, and impartial agent.

Applications for little children are much less likely to be selfish than for older children, and yet there is a good deal of selfishness in them. There is not a week that we do not receive one or more letters like this: "I would like to take a little girl from two to four years old, of fair complexion and unimpeachable ancestry." I can find a home for a child like that every day in the year. When people pray for a child of their own, they are apt to pray for a boy: when they want it for adoption, they want a girl. It is an unexplainable fact that every one who is engaged in placing out children is familiar with. A woman came in: "I would like to have a baby about four months old, next Monday, sure. I want a child with dark eyes and hair." I said, "That is rather a short order." But the woman said: "Our baby is dead. Our aunt would have given our baby some money; and we think, if we get a baby that looks like it, she won't know the difference." Recently we got this over the telephone: "This is Smith's drug store. There is a man going to Michigan on the eleven o'clock train, and he wants a boy. Can you let him have one?" We had an application from a woman who, when she came to our office, recommended herself. It was enough to look into her face to see that she was a good woman. "I want a little girl with black eyes and black hair." "Madam, you may go down to the nursery; and, if you find a child there that will suit you, we shall be willing." She went down to get the child. She came up perfectly happy. She had a little boy with blue eyes and a fair skin, a lovely child about five years old. When she went in and saw that child face to face, her heart went right out to him, and it was a case of love at first sight. There was a union effected which was permanent and beautiful.

The people are not all selfish that ask for these children. Some time ago, when on a tour of inspection, I visited the home of a German physician in a little country town. He was a very successful physician, with a long ride through the country. There was in the almshouse not far from there a little girl about two years old, whose legs were paralyzed; and, apparently, that child was doomed to spend its life in the institution, with such care and kindness as she might receive. Through one of the district superintendents this physician saw the child. He studied the case with the best books that he could get hold of. He took the child to his home. He visited other physicians, and consulted with them as to the best method of treatment; and then he went to work with electricity and massage, and, when I saw the child, she was running about the house, apparently cured, and it was interesting to see the mixture of fatherly affection and professional pride in the good doctor. He said, "My wife and I might as well walk the floor about this little

one as any one." That was a royal spirit. When we find people willing to take a child with a club foot or a child with one eye, and take that child into their home and lavish upon it love and devotion, we think that the greatest work is being done. We had a child in our nursery in Chicago who had a sore upon his neck, and he stayed there a year. Children came and went, and he grew sensitive because no one wanted him. A woman on the board said, "I have been talking over the matter with my husband; and, if you are willing, we will take this child home." They employed a good physician, and after a while the sore was healed. Then they sent him to school, and his mind expanded and he blossomed out like a little flower; and he is the joy and delight of that household.

We have a constant missionary work to do, to lead people to realize that they are not to take children for their own selfish gratification, but that they are to take a child because it is one of the little ones of the Lord Jesus Christ, and are to care for it with patience and fidelity. The people who take a child because it is pretty and desirable are often disappointed when it develops, and the people who take an unwanted child and give it their affection and fidelity often reap a rich reward.

Mrs. Sarah M. Perkins, Superintendent Infirmary Work, W. C. T. U., Cleveland.— I have had some experience in this sort of work. Besides bringing up three children of my own, I have taken nine out of orphan asylums. Some of them were not very promising when they came to me, but that was the more reason why I should take them. Children are not always grateful, but I did not take them for gratitude. I took them to give them a better future than they would otherwise have had, and to make them respectable boys and girls, so that they could act well their part in life. The thing I have tried to do is to win their love. If they love you, they will obey you and do anything you please. They are now all respectable men and women. I do not take any more now: I am too old; but I look back on that work as the best work of my life. I visited an infirmary once where I found a little boy with hip disease who was never expected to walk again. I was attracted by his beauty first, and I talked with him,— you cannot help being attracted by a beautiful child. He was only five, and I made up my mind that he should be taken out of that poorhouse and put under the hands of a surgeon. He had no money and no friends; but I went to Columbus and found the dear Catholic sisters would take him, and a surgeon took him in charge. And to-day the boy is earning his own living,— just the result of a little love and kindness. That is what gives men and women power.

Mr. Michel Heymann, New Orleans.— I am interested in the placing out of children, and think it is a system that we should practise. Have we any statistics of the success of the different states? How many states have adopted the system?

Miss BERTHA W. JACOBS, Deputy Superintendent State Board of Charity, Massachusetts.— I shall be glad to tell the Conference a little about the Massachusetts system and its results. When I began this work twenty-two years ago, all of the dependent and the younger delinquent children were kept in a large institution, known as the State Primary School, till they reached the age of twelve to fourteen years, when they were placed out in families and became self-supporting; but there still remained in the institution between 300 to 400 children too young to place. It was a most excellent institution in its way; but, when I used to go there, the children reminded me of little animals. They would gather around me, cling to my dress, take hold of my hand, ask to be kissed, and act as if they had never touched anything human.

In 1882 the State Board decided to try some other plan, and began to board the children in families, placing eight that year, and continuing to increase the number till 1895, when the State Primary School was abolished. There are now about 1,500 children over three years at board, and 300 infants; and Massachusetts has no institution for such children except a nursery, which will accommodate 8 infants, where the babies are placed when received, and are under the inspection of the medical visitor. The board, in addition, does make use of two boarding places near Boston, where the children over three years of age are placed when received, cleaned, clothed, medically inspected, and made ready to place at board. Any child who is found to be defective in mind or body is placed in a suitable hospital or institution for treatment. The board is not responsible for these houses, but pays board for each child, and can terminate the arrangement any day. The child remains in the temporary boarding place rarely more than a week, and is then placed at board at the rate of $1.50 per week, with an additional allowance of 50 cents for clothing. The homes are carefully selected and personally inspected by one of our visitors before placing the children. We depend very little on written recommendations, but on the report of the visitor, who goes to the town, and, before she leaves, usually ascertains the true character of an applicant. Often the stage-driver will incidentally give important information about the applicant, and a reliable country physician can tell a good deal about the private life of the family without betraying professional confidence. After a child is placed, it is visited once in three months, and sometimes a home that seemed good at first turns out to be undesirable; but the child can be removed at the discretion of the board, as no agreement is made to board a child for a stated time.

All the children attend the public schools, and their attendance is assured by a recent law whereby the state reimburses all cities and towns for the tuition of state children at the rate of 50 cents per week for actual attendance. The state also pays for conveyance, in

towns where the district school has been abolished, from the farm-home to the school. The state by these means has tried to provide the best education and training for her dependent children.

Since the abolishment of our institution seven years ago, we have never felt the need of starting another; and the children are more capable and become self-supporting at an earlier date when in good families, where they share in all the work of the household, than in an institution.

They remain at board, unless adopted or discharged, until they are old enough to be self-supporting, and we begin to place them in homes without board at ten years; but the larger number are boarded till twelve years. All are expected to be self-supporting at fourteen years, when compulsory schooling ceases. During the last year 75 children were provided for by adoption.

In addition to the 1,800 children at board, there are about 2,000 children who have been placed in families without board, and will remain in the care of the state board till majority.

The boarded children under ten years, both boys and girls, are visited by paid women visitors; and all boys over ten years in families, either with board or without, are visited by paid men visitors. The boarded children and older girls are visited every three months; but the older boys only twice a year, unless the visitor feels uncertain about the character of the home or the child is specially troublesome. All the girls who have become self-supporting are visited by a volunteer corps of women commissioned by the board, and known as the auxiliary visitors There are 70 of these visitors in the various towns and cities of the state and on the borders of the other New England States, who visit and report on the girls placed in their respective towns as often as seems desirable. They are a fine set of women, and do splendid work. Their work is under the immediate supervision of a paid visitor, with three assistants, who keeps in constant communication with the auxiliary visitors, and stands ready to do their work in case of illness or absence. She also places and relocates the girls, and arranges for the care of the girls when sick.

It would be impossible to give the average period for which board is paid, as no record has been kept; and the movement of the children is so constant it would be difficult to make an estimate. Some children come to us as infants and are boarded until twelve years, while others are received when nearly twelve and may be boarded only a few weeks. They are usually boarded in good families of small means, as well-to-do families do not want them; and it is better for the child to be placed in such families where they become a member of the family and are well trained and disciplined. Many of our homes we have used for more than twenty years; and, when one child is removed, another child is placed there. In some cases the families with whom the children have been boarded adopt them, but that is not frequent. Recently a girl of fourteen, who had been

trained in one of our families that have taken girls to board for nearly twenty years, was returned; and that very day she went into the home of one of the professors of the Institute of Technology, where she was to earn her living. The professor's wife reported that the child had been admirably trained. A child of that age earns $1 a week, one-fourth of which is held by the state for her till she is twenty-one, and the remainder is used for her clothing.

Hon. T. E. Ellison, Attorney, Fort Wayne, Ind.— It seems best that, before I answer your query as to how Indiana is caring for her dependent and orphan children, I should premise my remarks by saying that, as I understand the situation and work described by Miss Jacobs, it does not cover the whole field of caring for dependent children in Massachusetts, and the work described by others will only inform us as to what their particular scheme is doing.

In Indiana there is but one law in reference to this subject, and one plan of work. It covers the whole field, except a few cases of the class that are cared for by the Reform School.

Indiana has about the same population as Massachusetts. We have had in the various counties of the state, for a number of years, orphans' homes, managed and controlled by the people living in the immediate locality. The various counties pay 25 cents a day for the care and support of these children. Until 1897 each home followed its own ideas of how to care for and place their wards, and there were as many systems as there were homes.

In 1897 a law was passed giving the Board of State Charities supervision of all orphans' homes, and giving it the power to appoint an agent to supervise the work. $2,000 a year was appropriated for the purpose. We found 13,095 children in these homes, 550 in a State Institution for Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans, and 266 in the poorhouses. By that law it was declared illegal and punishable with a fine to permit a child over two years of age to live in a poorhouse.

The legislature of 1899 increased the appropriation to $4,500, and that of 1901 to $6,000 annually. The first increase enabled us to employ two agents; and the last increase will enable us to have three, two men and one lady. These agents frequently visit the orphans' homes. The Board of State Charities receives applications for children, and these agents ascertain whether the applicant for the child is a proper person to be given one, and whether the home surroundings are such that the child will be properly cared for; and then, more important than that, they visit the children after they are placed, and see that they are properly cared for.

During the first four years that this law was in operation, 788 children were placed in family homes by the state agents. The orphans' homes placed more children than they had formerly done, as it became apparent to them that such was the better way to care for

them properly. There are now about 2,400 children in family homes under the supervision of the Board of State Charities and its agents. The number of children in the orphans' homes has not been materially decreased, there being now 1,650 children in such homes; but, while this is so, the number of children in families that were receiving public aid, which has been distributed by township trustees and overseers of the poor, has decreased from over 34,000 to 22,000. This indirect gain has saved the state, it is estimated, over $350,000 in four years, besides bringing this class of children under supervision and securing them the benefits of intelligent care and attention. It is our purpose to find a home peculiarly fitted for each child, and we believe that no system that does not bring into this work a large number of people can be as successful as one which does. Our state agents give their entire time to this work. The matrons and various officers and friends of the various orphans' homes give a large part of their time to it.

Keeping our children in the orphans' homes close to the friends and relatives that they would naturally have, and keeping the mother heart of the community warm and in close touch with the child to be benefited, seems to bring about a condition of affairs that is not only beneficial to the child, but to the mother instinct of the community as well. We do not believe the boarding home for a child is as good as the orphans' homes. We have tried it in various localities, and find that we cannot hire board and care from persons who will prepare a child so as to fit it for a proper home as well as a matron or officer of an orphans' home will do. The children that are picked up here and there should be clean and at ease and able to attract the attention of those who are in search of such children before they are presented to them for examination; and some of the dirtiest, raggedest, most ill-kempt children, after a few weeks' or months' care, become the most desirable, and secure that good home they could not have got but for this expert attention.

The state has saved over $50,000 since 1897 by having these agents look after this work, because it is their business to do it, and it is done.

Formerly the responsibility did not seriously lie upon any one's head, and hence was frequently carelessly done; and the dependent children were supported by public charity for a considerable time. As the law is now enforced, they are much sooner placed in family homes and the state relieved of this expense. We believe that we are making better citizens out of our neglected and dependent children, and we know that we are saving large sums of money.

Dr. SARAH M. CRAWFORD, Deputy Superintendent Division Minor Wards, State Board of Charity of Massachusetts.— I have had charge of state babies, children under three years of age, for twenty-two years; and I cannot agree with what has been intimated,— that a paid visitor cannot get as near to this class of children as a matron

or any official in an institution. It is my duty to select boarding places for these little ones and to place them in these homes, and to visit them from month to month or from day to day, as their condition requires. I am their regular medical visitor, and am expected to treat them when they are ill, as well as to make visits of supervision when they are well. In these ways our acquaintance becomes very intimate and personal, and their interests and welfare very much my own. I have charge, under the direction of the superintendent, of infants of all ages, from a day to three years old, and of the selection and inspection of their boarding places. I should like to say a word about what this inspection means. We receive applications for children to board or to adopt from all classes of society, thus making the investigation of a home an important matter. It is really a sanitary inspection to ascertain the location of the house and the number and arrangement of the rooms, the sunlight, the water supply and drainage, the source of milk supply, the number of children already in the family, and the advisability of placing another child there, and, what is most important of all, to ascertain the intelligence, natural affection, ability, and aptitude of a woman for the proper management and care of a child. Many of the children who come to us are foundlings or deserted infants committed to the State Board of Charity by the overseers of the poor of the cities and towns of the commonwealth. Some are committed by the courts because of the neglect of their parents or guardians. A few are taken from institutions, some are summarily removed from unsuitable boarding places, others are placed in the custody of the board by their parents or friends, and some are given up to the State Board by their parents for the purpose of adoption. When these children are first committed to our custody, they are sent to our temporary boarding-house, where they receive a bath, clean clothing, and proper food. They are then ready to be sent to their more permanent boarding places. All are under three years of age.

Mr. STONAKER.— The question is not which is the better plan, the state home or public school plan, or the boarding-out plan with no state institution. It is, Are you placing out children? We placed out 50, out of 250, in a day in Colorado in an emergency; and we adopted the unique plan of placing many of them back with their parents. What we are caring for is the safeguarding of the children, no matter under what method they are placed.

Mr. BIRTWELL, Chairman.— I will ask Mr. Kingsley to tell us how he helps his placed-out children.

Mr. S. C. KINGSLEY, General Secretary Boston Children's Friend Society.— I represent a society seventy years old. Until two years ago the children were cared for in institutions. The institutions are now closed, and the buildings are for sale, the children placed out in private families. These families are thoroughly investigated. We believe in asking references from those who make the

application, and usually get from them the names of from three to six people, not relatives. Among these we like to have included the family physician. A carefully-prepared letter is sent to these addresses; and, in addition, from three to six other people of standing in the community are written to as independent references. These names are secured from year books, directories, from our acquaintance in the place, and from other similar sources. In the letter sent to these people we state that the applicant has not given their names, that he or she does not know we are writing, and that their information will be held as strictly confidential. We believe that the answers from these six to ten people, living in the same community with the applicant, and knowing him or her thoroughly for years, afford a valuable mass of information about the family. However, this is not considered sufficient to form a basis for approval or disapproval. A visit is made to the family, usually at a time when not expected by them; and if, after inspection of the place and interview with the people, it is deemed wise to use the home, it is placed on the approved list. Then equal care is taken in selecting a child for the family; and, when the child is placed, it is only accounted as a beginning, and is followed by careful and persistent oversight.

As to the relative merits of the two systems, the institution or the family, our experience shows that in a family the children receive much more individual attention, more of the kind of knowledge and training which a child ought to acquire during that period of his life, and that in this early mingling with their little fellow-citizens in the normal relations of life they are better prepared to meet and mingle with them in adult life as their neighbors, competitors, and friends. The inauguration of this system has also resulted in a saving of about $5,000 a year to the treasury.

The majority of the children are in boarding homes, the rate being $2 per week and the children clothed besides. Some are in free homes; that is, homes in which their services are given in return for board and clothing while they are attendants at school. Others are in homes where wages are paid. Children are sometimes placed for adoption, but in the majority of cases there are reasons which ought to prevent adoption. The children have parents who ought not to give them up except from temporary necessity, such as illness or accident or the temporary separation of families. We believe in making every possible effort to preserve the family relation if the situation is such that there is any possibility of holding the members together.

Mr. Hugh F. Fox, President State Board of Children's Guardians.— The New Jersey contribution to this department of work is valuable from the fact that, when the State Board of Children's Guardians was created, it was not necessary to make any compromise on account of local conditions or existing institutions. All of the dependent children of the state who were a charge upon the tax-

payer were lodged in the almshouses, and the framers of the act which created the Board of Guardians were able to put into effect immediately the best plan that could be devised for the disposition of the children. The commission had previously spent two years studying the systems in vogue elsewhere; and New Jersey was fortunate in being able to profit by the experience of others, who by their successes and failures had grown wise in their work. After hearing all that the advocates of institutions, home-finding agencies state public schools, county asylums, and children's aid societies had to say, and after listening to the confidential confessions which were made by the actual workers of the limitations under which they were working, we came to the conclusion that it was impossible to devise a child-placing scheme which would enable us to take care of all classes and all ages of dependent children without a provision by which we could pay board for a considerable number of them. So far we have found that it is necessary to pay board for about half of the children who are under our care. Our work in finding homes is greatly facilitated by a unique provision which requires that the children shall be placed in families of the same faith as that of their parents. This provision has enabled us to enlist the aid of the clergy of all denominations in getting homes for our children, and virtually in acting as visiting agents of the board. We also get a monthly report from the child's public or parochial school-teacher, giving us the record of the child's school attendance, appearance, condition of clothing, etc. This is supplemented by a quarterly report from the minister or priest and a quarterly visit of our agent. Our agents are expected to keep in touch with the teacher and minister, and to establish confidential relations with the child and its foster-parents, so that they may know what the life of the child really is. The agent is not like a factory inspector. She ought to be a friend of the child and of the family, and occupy as close a relation to them as a family physician would. This, of course, is the ideal; and I do not mean to say that it is always possible to live up to it. What I do mean to imply, however, is this: that child-placing is difficult work; and, unless it is surrounded with every possible safeguard, it is extremely dangerous.

Mr. WILLIAM B. STREETER, State Agent Board of State Charities, Indiana.— In the first place we believe in getting all the information about every applicant from different sources that we can. We not only seek information by correspondence, but also by personal visits to the family, never placing a child in a family that we have not personally visited. I mean by that that one of the representatives of the Board of State Charities actually visits in person every family in which a child is placed, where the application comes to that board.

QUESTION.— How many do you place in a year?

Mr. STREETER.— About 250 is our present capacity,— from that to 300. We have our orphan homes in the various counties, and

those are governed by county associations. We make use of those associations to determine whether the families are good. We have in each township a trustee who is supervisor of the poor, and we ask him for information. But we find that the best information that we get is from the acquaintances we make among the reliable people in the various communities in which we work.

As to the work after we have placed the child, we are somewhat handicapped in the matter of the subsequent supervision by the number of visitors that our appropriation will allow us to employ. But we see every child that we place ourselves at least twice a year, and most of them five or six times. We are also charged with visiting the children placed out by associations, which of course takes time that we might devote to the children that we actually place ourselves.

The children are made public wards in five different ways: first, by the township trustee who is supervisor of the poor; second, from the Orphans' Home Association, which is authorized by law to admit children to public care by absolute release to the association by the parents; third, by circuit judges who are also authorized by law to make the children public wards; fourth, the county commissioners are authorized to make children public wards. We have also one institution that differs from what other states have,— a county board of children's guardians. In some respects it corresponds to the New Jersey State Board, in others it differs. It consists of six members, three men and three women, appointed by the circuit judge. This board investigates the conditions surrounding neglected children; and if, in its opinion, there is reason for removing a child, it presents a petition in court and brings the child before the court, and evidence is taken. If the court finds that the interests of the child will be served by making it a public ward, it appoints this board its guardian, which supports it, and the child is placed with it. These boards have placing agents, devoting themselves exclusively to those wards, yet helpful to the general scheme by sharing the information relative to people that they gain.

There are about 1,650 children in the orphans' homes supported by the counties, and nearly 2,700 in free homes that we are looking after. We board no children in families. Every child in a family is in a free home.

Mr. W. A. Gates, Agent State Board of Control, Minnesota.— I want to remind this Conference that there are other states, besides Indiana and Massachusetts, where we have the same problems to meet. In Minnesota the state holds its hand on the placing out of children and on every child placed out, whether by private institutions, as the Children's Home Society, or by the state. The state reserves the right to visit and look after them all. The society is obliged to report to the state the name of the child and where it is placed, so that the State Board can look after it. We have a state

school; and, in fact, we encourage the state school principle. The state school is only a clearing house from which the child goes as quickly as possible to a home. We have four agents at work selecting homes. These homes are visited in every instance before the child is placed in them. After the child is placed, these agents, employed by the state, and under the control of the superintendent of the State Public School, frequently visit him.

We have still another problem to face. Placing out agencies from other states, especially from New York, bring children into the state. We have passed a law which provides that no such agency can place a child in the state without giving a bond to the amount of $1,000 that they will remove that child if it becomes dependent within three years. They are also compelled to furnish to the State Board a list of the children they place and the homes in which they are placed, so that they can be visited by the State Board to see that the work is being properly done.

C. C. STAHMANN, Superintendent Children's Home Society, St. Louis, Mo.— Our children's Home Society has been organized ten years, and we are trying to do the work as faithfully as we know how. We have organized local boards in every hamlet in Missouri; and that means a great deal, since we are the fifth state in the Union. Unfortunately, we have only five district superintendents. They travel over the length and breadth of the land, and they make it a point to keep in touch with the members of the local boards and with as many benevolent people as possible. We depend for our information about the families about to take children upon these local boards, upon physicians, and upon business men. In some instances we find it better to find out from the grocer or the butcher about them. They know whether they pay their bills, and it is sometimes better to know that than to know whether they regularly attend church. It gives one a better insight as to their ability to care for children properly. We have been particularly fortunate in placing our children. We have not visited every home, though that is our aim.

In the ten years of our existence we have handled nearly 1,612 children. Of these we have placed 1,356. Remember, this is not a state institution, nor is it supported by public funds, but by the benevolent people of the state. During the last year we placed 400. The number of boys from the beginning is 750 and of girls 862. The people of Missouri believe that the day of orphanages is past, and that God's ideal plan is to have every child in a home.

Mrs. E. E. WILLIAMSON, President New Jersey Conference Charities and Correction.— We have heard from various states, but little has been said by any one about the reconstruction of families. The New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians has found that this is one of the very best features of its work. n the three years in which we have been in existence we have been able to return over

one hundred children to their parents or relatives, after careful supervision of the family, and doing everything by degrees. Let me give you one characteristic incident. A man wandered from his family, his wife went to the hospital, and the children to the almshouse. The man got work in a neighboring state. He had not lost all affection for his family, but he had drifted away from them. He could not explain even to himself exactly how. We brought that man back to New Jersey, and put him at work, and gave him back his wife and baby, but not the two older children. Soon they began clamoring for the other children; and on Thanksgiving evening we returned one child, and on Christmas the second, and the family is now happy together. This matter of the reconstruction of families is one that public and private societies should look after as the first thing to do, if possible. We all believe in placing children in families; and none of us would uphold the institution against the family, though we know that institutions are necessary to a certain extent. The time has not come to wipe them all out. Yet we find that the managers of institutions are themselves considering the great question of substituting placing out methods. The movement has begun in Massachusetts. It is extending to Missouri, and we shall live to see it generally adopted, perhaps. But let us not forget that the father and mother have the first right, and that our part is to begin with the reconstruction of the family. Let us not break it up if we can reconstruct it.

Mr. EDWARD T. DEVINE, Secretary Charity Organization Society of New York.— The one thing that is of more importance than what Mrs. Williamson has spoken of, the reconstruction of the family, is the preservation of the family. In a sense all progressive relief societies and all up-to-date charity organization societies are engaged in the preservation of the family, preventing families from being broken up. In New York during the last few years we have been engaged in carrying on an experiment which has seemed to me interesting and significant. It is a plan of co-operation in which there have participated Catholics and Protestants, public officials and private agencies. When parents apply for the commitment of their children as public charges, and it is decided that the conditions of residence and destitution are met, then the Charity Organization Society sees whether the breaking up of the family cannot be prevented. As the result of this co-operation among the different agencies in the past four years, about two thousand children, who would otherwise have become public charges, have been kept with their parents; and the population of the institutions has been to that extent reduced. Other things have co-operated to this end; but this has been an exceedingly important factor in the reduction, and one on which we may congratulate ourselves.

Mr. ALLISON.— What becomes of the children after they have left the homes in which they have been placed?

Mr. Fox.— The only state that has followed the plan long enough to get statistics on that subject is Michigan, a report of which will be found in *Charities*. Some of the children placed out there have grown to manhood and womanhood; and the significant feature is this: that 85 per cent. of the children taken from families where they had bad heredity had turned out well, self-respecting and self-supporting citizens.

Mr. BIRTWELL.— We have hundreds of cases where we can follow the children up to mature life and married life. Our oversight runs through the minority of the child.

Mrs. J. M. KINNEY, Michigan.— I consider our system the best; and the reason that Indiana is doing so well is because they have our Mr. Streeter, and the reason Minnesota is doing so well is because they are copying our system.

Mr. GATES.— Yes, we got our superintendent from your state.

Mrs. KINNEY.— He used to be *our* Mr. Merrill. Our little children are sent to Coldwater after they are one year old, but they are kept there no longer than till good homes can be found for them. The homes are carefully investigated. We have county agents who are appointed by the governor, and who are under the supervision of our State Board. They must investigate *every* home. No one engaged in a private charity can place a child without reporting to the county agent, who must visit it, so that it is carefully watched. I used to take a good many children to Coldwater myself. Early in life my attention was drawn to this kind of work; and I have placed many children who are now grown to manhood and womanhood, and are in homes in this state, many of them legally adopted. Besides the county agent we have a state agent, who must investigate and visit every home.

QUESTION.— Is it not true that a child committed to the Michigan State Public School is forever lost to its parents?

JOHN B. MONTGOMERY, Superintendent Michigan State Public School.— Since the establishment of the Michigan State Public School in 1874, 5,118 children have been committed to it by order of the probate courts of the various counties of the state. Of this number 600 have been restored to their parents by order of the Board of Control. In fact, the reuniting of families is one of the chief pleasures of the work. Concerning adoptions, I will say that children are first placed out on indenture, and may be adopted after a trial period of one year upon the recommendation of the county and state agents. During the trial period and pending permit of adoption a very careful examination is made of the child's history to ascertain whether it has parents living who are able, or likely to become able, to support and care for it properly. On the other hand, it must be clearly shown to the Board of Control that adoption will best serve the permanent interests of the child.

Mr. MICHEL HEYMANN, Secretary Charity Organization Society,

New Orleans.— We have arrived at a critical time: which shall it be, institutions or placing out? I say placing out. I am at the head of an institution, and yet I say placing out is best, provided the children are placed in good families, and that they are visited very often,— not once a year. John Stuart Mill said that every country has the government it deserves, and I say that every state has the placing out system that it deserves. The more good families there are, the more children we can place out. There is progress in Louisiana, and there is progress everywhere; and I hope it will go on till we have a good system of placing out everywhere. We have 2,500 children in orphanages, and I do not see where we can place these children. There are not enough families who want them. If we must have orphanages, they should not be in large cities. I would have them in the country, on the cottage system, with agricultural and manual training. But I have to stay in the city with my children in my nice big house. A rich Jew in New Orleans has offered to pay for a manual training school, and that is fine. Our children's education is not practical enough. They leave at twelve or thirteen, and we want during those years to teach them something practical. Let us have manual training for them, and then every boy and girl will be able to make a living.

Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, Chairman State Board of Charities and Corrections, New Hampshire.— In the procession of states I do not like to feel that New Hampshire does not fall into line, for she is beginning to take her place in the proper care of dependent children. We have many difficulties to contend with, chief among which is very little money, only $2,000 a year, and that only for the last year. Then there is a strong feeling in the state in favor of institutional life for children. We have on the records of the State Board 474 children dependent on public charity. Of this number only 117 are in homes, while 287 are in orphan asylums, and 70 babies and defectives still remain in the county almshouses. Then there are in the thirteen different private orphanages of the state 595 children supported by private charity, and 37 deaf and blind children are provided for in schools outside the state, making a total of 1,006. As the population of the state is only 411,588, it is plain that the proportion of dependent children is unduly large. Each child, who is a public charge, has a visitor who is supposed to take a friendly interest in him, and who reports to the Board of Charities every three months. In addition we have one paid agent who visits each child as often as possible. I hope by another year we shall be able to report smaller numbers, and that at least half of our dependent children are placed out in homes.

Mr. Irving J. Luce, First Assistant Superintendent American Home-Finding Association, California.— Our Association has been incorporated three years, and has placed 350 children; and, in addition, it has assisted 81 above the age of fifteen to positions of self-sup-

port, a number of whom are making their way through higher institutions of learning. Next year one of them will enter the University of California. Our association is supported by voluntary aid. We find our homes through our superintendents travelling about; and, instead of having local boards, we have local representatives, 175 in number, who report to the state headquarters the names of families in their communities who will receive children. That is not considered sufficient; and, in most cases, the homes are investigated by the agent. The representatives keep a quiet supervision over the child; and, if anything goes wrong, they report to headquarters. The children are visited at least once a year by the placing agent. If a child is found who is particularly adapted to take a higher education, he is placed in a university town where he may have a better chance for it.

Mr. GEORGE L. SEHON, Superintendent Children's Home Society, Kentucky.— While the South has been slow in taking hold of child-saving work, we have begun an earnest and promising work now. We are placing out children with care, and are not receiving any to place out till we know it is an absolute necessity to take them. We believe the child should be with its family,— if not with its parents, then with relatives.

Mr. J. R. BRACKETT, President Department of Charities and Correction, Baltimore, Md.— As a friend and believer in the placing out system, I want to utter a word of warning. The value of that system depends on how it is done. We must not rush in and do it wholesale until we intend to do it well. We should here discuss practical matters. I want to know, as a practical matter, whether for selection and supervision of families for children, county agents and local boards are as useful as highly trained agents, few in number, who go out from a central place and are paid high salaries? I believe myself that you cannot depend on local committees, but that the right way is to set a very high standard of trained workers, and to send them out to do most careful visiting very often.

H. C. WITHROW, Humane Agent, Minnesota.— I agree with Mr. Gates, of Minnesota, that Minnesota has perhaps better and more philanthropic laws than any other state in the Union. One of our laws I desire to call the attention of the Conference to is a law passed four years ago, whereby crippled and deformed children whose parents are too poor to have them treated at their own expense, can be treated at the expense of the state by placing the child in the State Hospital in our capital city. During the past four years I have placed 40 children in our State Hospital, suffering with all kinds of crippled conditions, hip-joint disease, infantile paralysis, and tuberculosis; and in each case the child, when cured, was returned to its home perfectly well. New York State has a similar law copied after the Minnesota law, and I would like to see such a law on the statute books of every state in the Union.

The Committee on Time and Place was announced as follows: Alabama, Dr. Bragg; California, Dr. Lawlor; Colorado, C. L. Stonaker; Connecticut, W. G. Fairbank; Delaware, Morris Levy; District of Columbia, E. E. McCaslin; Georgia, Dr. T. D. Longino; Illinois, W. H. Penhallegon; Indiana, Demarchus C. Brown; Kansas, Edward A. Fredenhagen; Kentucky, George Sehon; Louisana, Michel Heymann; Maine, Freeman Gowen; Massachusetts, Charles W. Birtwell; Michigan, Rev. Cyrus Mendenhall; Minnesota, G. A. Merrill; Missouri, Andrew J. Warren; Nebraska, A. W. Clark; New Hampshire, W. J. Ahern; New Jersey, A. W. Abbott; New York, Frank Tucker; Ohio, General R. Brinkerhoff; Pennsylvania, F. H. Nibecker; Rhode Island, George Lewis Smith; Virginia, George B. Davis; Washington, C. Thwing; Wisconsin, Mrs. Emma Bland; Iowa, John Beardsley; Canada, J. J. Kelso.

Adjourned at 12 M.

SECTION MEETING.

DESTITUTE AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

Monday afternoon, June 2, 1902.

The section meeting of the Committee on Destitute and Neglected Children held a meeting on Monday afternoon, called to order by the chairman, Mr. C. W. Birtwell, secretary of the Children's Aid Society, Boston, Mass. The subject taken up was the way in which families are investigated that desire to take children. The following is an abstract of the discussion: —

Mr. B. Pickman Mann, of the Board of Children's Guardians, Washington, D.C., said that their agent investigates the families and submits a report, and that ninety-nine times out of a hundred the court accepts the suggestion of the agent in regard to the placing out of children.

Mr. Seymour H. Stone, superintendent State Board of Children's Guardians of New Jersey, said that, when an application from a family was received, a list of twenty-five or thirty questions had to be filled out and returned. References from the minister or priest are also asked, and whether the family has taken children from any other organization. If it is probably a good home, a visitor is sent to visit the family and inspect the quarters, and to see where the child will sleep. Inquiries about the health of the children in the family and the probabilities of the child being happy are made, also whether they will send

the child to school regularly and to church and Sunday-school. The name of the pastor is learned, and he is often visited. The opinion of two or three neighbors is secured as to whether the family is likely to treat the child well. If everything is all right, the child is placed. Every child placed in a family must be visited four times a year by the visitor. In addition, said Mr. Stone, we write to the family and to the children. We get quarterly reports from the minister or priest. We are required to place children in the families of the same religious faith as their parents, Catholics with Catholics and Protestants with Protestants. Every month we receive a report from the school-teacher which does not go to the family at all. We ask the condition of the child's clothing, its physical condition, and as to attendance at school. We have the right at any minute to take away a child: there is no indenture. If a family does not want to keep a child, it has a right, after sufficient notice, to ask us to take the child away.

Rev. H. H. Hart.— We always pay special attention to the first letter of the applicant. You can judge a good deal of the spirit of the applicant from such a letter. If we decide to look farther into the family, we send blanks to be filled out and signed by husband and wife. We ask for references; but we by no means restrict ourselves to those references, sometimes not using them at all. We have local advisory boards in the cities and villages that assist us. We also find out about the finances of the applicant. If, after all this, the application seems favorable, our local superintendent is notified,— we have eight in Illinois,— and ask him to visit the home and report. Sometimes the child is placed out on a visit, subject to return, especially in cases where we are more anxious to place a child than people are to receive it.

Mr. Sherman C. Kingsley, Secretary Children's Friend Society, Boston, Mass.— A great many applications are received at our office from people who want to take children. We send out a printed form, which is filled out and returned to us. If the replies to our questions are favorable, we ask for the names of five persons who are of standing in the community as references. We send out from three to five letters to people without the knowledge of the applicant,— to the superintendent of schools, to the selectmen, or to the minister of the place, perhaps. If they do not know the family, we ask them to suggest some one who might. If the family seems desirable, we make a visit to see them. We select the child with the same care. Ours is a private society, and the children are all Massachusetts children; but we place them in New Hampshire and Connecticut. We give the people to understand that the child will stay with them so long as the child is satisfied with the home and they with the child. If we want the child, we go and get him.

Mr. C. C. Stahmann, Superintendent Children's Home Society, Missouri.— I wish that some of the Eastern societies would adopt

your ways. It is amazing, the way a New York society sends children to homes in the West without any such care.

Rev. D. J. McMahon.— I rise to defend the New York society referred to, though I am not connected with it. There may have been careless ways in the past; but that particular society has seen the evils of careless placing out and lack of supervision, and those evils have been remedied. In the forty years of its existence they have placed out more than twenty-two thousand children, from among whom there have been ministers, business men of all classes, a governor, I believe, and other men who have done well. While I am not in favor of their former methods, I think that their present methods include careful supervision. In certain states children cannot be placed from other states without a bond of $1,000. Supervision is absolutely necessary, or children placed out drift away and may become tramps and criminals. In New York City we have ten different buildings for the care of boys from fifteen to twenty. They go to their work by day, but these are the homes to which they return at night. The New York Children's Aid Society lodges six hundred boys who need this sort of care. That is a Protestant society, and, as I am a Roman Catholic priest, I am not connected with it; but I felt that it ought to be defended.

Dr. F. H. Darby, Children's Home Society, Columbus, Ohio.— We do some original things in the way of investigating. I fortify myself with a good list of names. I have the bankers' directory, a newspaper directory, and a registry of physicians, and from these I select people who will be likely to give us information. I think that the opinion of a good honest country doctor, as to the status of people and their moral and financial standing, is the best information we can get. They can give us such information as we need without violating any professional requirements.

Mr. W. B. Streeter, Agent State Board of Charities, Indiana.—We get the letters of application, and decide in the office whether we want to do anything further. If we want more information, I send out a circular and an application. When the application comes back, we go on with the investigation. I go to the town where the people live, and make inquiries wherever I think I can get information, from the doctor, the attorney, the postmaster, the druggist, the teacher. If I am reasonably certain that it will pay to go to the expense of going out to the house, I drive out; and perhaps my driver can give me some information. As soon as I get into the neighborhood, I get all the information I can. If the reports are all favorable, I finally go to the house; and I notice first its outside condition,—the condition of the farm-yard and the fence corners,—whether the farmer leaves his tools in the field, whether the stock is well cared for, and whether his animals come to him readily or run away from him. I look after their fatness. I notice the inside of the house, and I always make it a point to get into the kitchen. I

don't care so much for the parlor, but I want to see the kitchen. I want to know where the food is prepared before I put a child out, to know whether he is going to have anything decent to eat or not. If I find the kitchen all right, I can stand the rest of the house. I always drive up to the back door just to see the kitchen. Then I manage to see, if possible, every member of the family. I get letters saying that people are first class, and, when I go to see the family, I find an old grandmother helpless with rheumatism or the father sick in bed with consumption; and no one has told me of these things. I look after all of these things. I do not mean to say that I can find out all about a home by visiting it two or three times, but I can get some idea; and, if it proves desirable, then, if there is a child that will fit into that home, I make the trial.

Mr. GEORGE L. SEHON, Superintendent Children's Home Society, Kentucky.— The person I depend on more than any one else for information about a family is the physician of the place. In addition to other letters I write to the butcher and the baker. They know about the probabilities of the family feeding the child properly.

Rev. JOHN MUNDAY, Port Huron, Mich.— As a clergyman, I receive a great many letters asking about families; and, if I know a family is not fit to receive a child, I have a right to say so confidentially. Except what I receive under the seal of confession, I am at perfect liberty to reveal in the interests of one of God's little children.

Mr. GEORGE R. BROWN.— I am the superintendent of an orphan house that does not thrust the children out on their reception, but keeps them till they are fifteen, unless exceptionally good homes are found for them. In placing out children, we can write to lawyers, doctors, ministers, and get, as a rule, one class of answers; but, if you write and ask specific questions, the answers may be very different from the first letters received. Often they refuse to answer, which means that there is something worth looking into. In visiting a child after it is placed, I find the most satisfactory visit is the second one after the child is placed. Between the two visits I have heard each month from the child, and we know what to expect. The people in the house and the child do not become acquainted so as to show their different points within three months after the child has been placed there. A visit at the end of the first three months is of great importance.

Mr. BIRTWELL.— One can get lists from State gazetteers, from farmers' institutes and granges, as well as from lists of physicians.

MEMBER, Indiana.— When I want information about a family, I write to the postmaster and ask for the names of some of the best citizens, and then write to them.

Mr. E. P. QUIVEY, Superintendent Children's Home Society, Nebraska.— I have been in this work twelve years, and I am a strong

believer in local boards. We have boards from the different churches. A large per cent. are ladies. They are of great assistance in looking up the homes.

Mrs. OPHELIA L. AMIGH, Superintendent State Training School for Girls, Geneva, Ill.— Our girls are all brought from the courts. If I see an officer coming with a girl, I always go to meet them, and shake hands with them both, and say, "So you are going to leave me this little girl for a while," or some such thing. I always speak to them in a motherly way. Sometimes they are timid, and do not say much. I tell the girl that there are a great many other little girls there, and that they will find a great many pleasant things there. If she is a little girl, I always take her by the hand and lead her into the matron's room, and tell her that I have brought her a little girl, and I hope she will make it as pleasant as possible for her. They all have instructions not to correct the new girls as much as they would one who has been there a long time. For the purpose of keeping her from being uncomfortable we do not let her have conversation with the other girls for twenty-four hours, or till the newness has worn away, because they would ask too many questions. We do not want her troubled in that way. She has new clothes, and is placed in one of the families with girls of her own age. We have a most motherly woman who looks after the little girls. If it is an older girl, after a day or two I have a confidential talk with her in my office; and, if she is a girl without a mother, I tell her that she must look on me as her mother, and that she must confide in me and tell me all her troubles. If she has a mother, I say to her, "Now you and I will correspond with your mother." I tell her she is to talk of her past with no one but me. When we place a girl out, after she is capable of earning wages, we draw up papers and make the people responsible; and they also promise to send us reports every month as to her progress. We have unrestricted correspondence with the girl. We do not allow her to talk of her past with the family. We do not send out a girl till we can recommend her; and the family must trust to us, and not try to learn the antecedents of the girl.

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Friday night, May 30.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by the Rev. W. D. Maxsom, of Christ Episcopal Church, Detroit. Mr. James Allison, superintendent of the House of Refuge, Cincinnati, Ohio, reported for the Committee on Juvenile Delinquents and took charge of the session (page 250).

A notice was given with reference to the publication of *Charities*, and people were invited to subscribe.

A paper on "The Cultivation of Individuality," was read by Eugene E. York, superintendent of the Reform School for Boys, Plainfield, Ind. (page 261). Discussion followed.

DISCUSSION ON JUVENILE REFORMATORIES.

MICHEL HEYMANN, New Orleans.—We all recognize that child-saving is the basis of our work, and that kindergartens are of great importance in child-saving. Several years ago I asked to have a kindergarten section of this Conference. I think that it is a mistake that that has not been done before. Of all means to keep the children out of reformatories, kindergartens are the most important. We have in New Orleans seven free kindergartens. Besides that, we have kindergartens in every public school. Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper told us that in San Francisco she had about forty kindergartens, each one supported by one person. In New Orleans they are supported by five or six hundred people. In all his prison reports, General Brinkerhoff pleads for kindergartens to prevent crime. Two years ago I represented this country (at my own expense) at the International Congress of Charities, and I spoke about free kindergartens; and the result was a vote recommending the creation of free kindergartens in the slums everywhere. In his book, "The Last Waif," Mr. Horace Fletcher says the country will have done its whole duty only when the last waif shall be in a free kindergarten. I hope the ladies and gentlemen of this Conference will see that the subject of kindergartens has a place in next year's programme.

Judge LINDSEY, Colorado.— Before I leave this Conference, I desire to impress upon the delegates the necessity of earnest work in your respective states to have your legislatures next winter enact the proper laws to establish juvenile courts. Such courts should be established in every state in the Union. I can say from my experience that the attendance at industrial schools can be decreased more through the juvenile court and probation system than by any method I have yet heard of. Do not ask your legislatures to establish separate courts, unless in a few possible exceptional cases in several of the large cities of the United States. All that is necessary, as a rule, is to adopt some such system as that now in force in Illinois, requiring that all juvenile offenders under sixteen years of age shall be tried as delinquents and tried as such in one court where criminals are not tried; and, if the court be one of criminal jurisdiction, then upon certain days when there are no criminal cases upon the docket. The court in Denver over which I preside is not devoted entirely to juvenile cases. As a matter of fact, the juvenile division composes a very small portion of the work of this court. Under our

practice it is known as the County Court, and has jurisdiction of civil and probate cases; and, by what is known as the School Law or Compulsory Education Act, adopted by our legislature in 1899, it is required to try all juveniles for truancy or disorderly conduct. Any child under sixteen, having committed what is generally termed a criminal offence, may be proceeded against in the juvenile division of the county court as a disorderly juvenile person. The report of the juvenile division of our court will be issued some time in August, and we should be very glad to mail a copy to any one interested in juvenile courts. Those interested, however, and desiring information, should write to the *Juvenile Record*, 79 Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill. This publication has done more to advertise the juvenile court idea than any one influence that I am aware of, and it will gladly furnish a copy of the Illinois juvenile court law and other desirable information concerning reforms of this character.

I stopped in Chicago on my way here, and visited the city bridewell. In one cell-house there were nearly four hundred promiscuous prisoners, and I do not hesitate to say that one-half of them were under twenty years of age. While I was there, a number of prisoners were brought in from the police stations; and I think eight out of twenty-one gave their ages as sixteen and seventeen years. This is a serious condition of affairs. I can assure you that it will not exist after the juvenile court of Chicago, presided over by Judge Tuthill, has been in existence for a few more years; and it would not exist to-day, had that court been established ten years ago or even five years ago. This Conference cannot give too much importance to the great problem of the delinquent children.

Every delinquent in our juvenile court is made to feel that the court and its officials are what they ought to be, his friends and counsellors, for the purpose of aiding, assisting, and encouraging, and not for the purpose of punishing. Of course, firmness is necessary; and, if reformation is not to be had at home, it must be enforced as far as possible at an industrial school. A child has a keen sense of justice; and in every case committed from our court the delinquent himself is asked concerning the justice of his sentence, and in nearly every case admits he has had a "square deal," "a fair show," and deserves the restraint imposed upon him by the industrial school,—really much milder than ever contemplated by the delinquent. The state thus continues the friend of the child in his own estimation throughout every stage of the proceeding. He is never permitted to feel that he is a criminal (as he is not) or regarded as such, but that he may be, if his course is persisted in, which result the court is deeply interested in preventing. How many careers of crime have resulted from that malignant spirit engendered in the first prosecution, that the State and its officials are the sworn enemies of the accused? Our court has no stronger friends than the very boys it has committed. It is well that this

sense of justice should be satisfied, and a child waywardly disposed learn from the beginning that the state occupies the same position as its parent, and is his friend and protector, and the government is for his own welfare. The per cent. of criminals starting as delinquent children is amazing. The methods of the juvenile courts tend more to make such children, when taken in delinquency, really patriotic in spirit, protectors of the state, and upholders of its laws. The old methods add to the list of criminals and swell the ranks of anarchy. Who could well overestimate the expense to the State of Illinois that would be incurred in other trials and imprisonments of the great per cent. of those two hundred young men that we saw in the city bridewell, who will continue a criminal or vagabond career? What of the saving had they been taken in time? And this is considering only the cold and less important question of dollars and cents.

We heartily approve of the method suggested that will give these delinquent boys self-respect and teach them that they have a right to the protection of the law. It is a common thing for boys to come into our court and ask about their rights. Our bailiff has instructions to show such an inquirer right up to the bench, if necessary. Not long ago, when trying an estate case involving about two million dollars, a little boy who had been redeemed from the street came into court, and wanted to see the judge. The argument was interrupted for a moment; and what do you think that boy wanted? An injunction against a policeman who had been worrying him. That is the kind of spirit to create in a boy. Of course, he got the injunction.

We have had for years, hundreds of years, courts of equity and chancery whose sole duty it is to take charge of the property of minors; and the man who controls the property of a child is often subject to higher penalties for failure to deal rightly with it than if it were property of an adult. I have myself been compelled to send a guardian to jail for dissipating the property of his ward. But, when it comes to dealing with the child itself, what does the court know about the child? As a rule, nothing. I say that it is time for us to look after the child, at least as much as we look after its property.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

FIRST SECTION MEETING.

JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Thursday afternoon, May 29.

The first section meeting of the Committee on Juvenile Delinquents was held in the Sunday-school room of the Central Methodist Church at 2 P.M., May 29, with a large attendance. Prayer was offered by the Rev. George Elliott, Detroit. The section was called to order by the chairman, Mr. James Allison, superintendent of the House of Refuge, Cincinnati, who gave a cordial welcome to all, and called attention to the specimens of carpentry, sloyd work, kindergarten work, blacksmithing, dressmaking, fancy needlework, cookery, and of school work of different grades, placed on exhibition in an adjoining room by various reformatory institutions of the country.

E. P. Wentworth, of Portland, Me., was elected secretary.

The subject for the afternoon was taken up. Punishments: What place have they in a reform school, and what are the effects in general? What are proper and improper punishments? How shall kind and extent be regulated? Mr. T. F. Chapin, superintendent Lyman School for Boys, Westboro, Mass., was invited to open the discussion, and was followed by Mr. F. H. Nibecker.

PUNISHMENTS.

BY T. F. CHAPIN.

We assume that it is agreed that the reform school is not a penal institution, and that a boy is not sent there for punishment, and that the public ought to disabuse its mind of any such idea. It is quite a different thing, however, to say that the boy who is sent there should not be punished. Disobedience entails penalties. In that sense, I suppose, the public, as a rule, thinks of the boy's sentence to the reform school as the penalty of certain acts; but the proper attitude toward the reform school is to consider it a necessary adjunct of a somewhat defective educational system. The boy is out of adjustment with the educational facilities on account of home and other conditions, consequently is sent where he can have all-round educational treatment.

It is all very well to inveigh against any form of corporal punishment as contrary to the American spirit, distasteful to public sentiment, and humiliating and degrading to recipient and administrator.

So long as the pupil is compelled by the might of law to go to the reform school and to stay there, the notion of force cannot be eliminated. It ought not to be obtrusive. Every resource ought to be drawn upon to lead the pupil to use his judgment, and not go counter to constituted authority. All legitimate motives should be appealed to, to cause him to respect his own manhood, and not place himself on a level with the horse or mule which has no understanding; but, when all is said and done, there will be boys who will make better men because of a good sound caning, and who without it will be confirmed in a reckless disregard for the rights of others.

Now the popular sentiment is quite against corporal punishment both in the abstract and in the concrete. The New England Association of School Superintendents in a recent meeting were a unit in deprecating the use of the rod, although most of them admitted that it was occasionally unavoidable; and my experience with them in school work — I have had several at the Lyman School — is that those who are so loud in profession of horror at this mediæval barbarity are those who appeal oftenest to it to sustain their authority. Good instructors find little use for punishment. It is the weaklings who appeal to the element of fear. There is such a superabundance of authority in a reform school that frequent appeals to the physical argument are discreditable. All violent and hasty punishments should be avoided, such as the use of the fists, cuffing, pulling hair, ears, etc., also constrained positions,— unusual modes of punishment of any kind, because such proceedings are liable to arouse unnecessary public comment, and because they are generally ill-judged and childish.

The superintendent should shoulder the responsibilities for all punishments; and, to do so properly, he should prescribe the punishment, and, if it is to be a whipping, it ought to be in his presence. The fullest record of the same should be kept, both for the protection of the institution and for information of those who have a right to know what is going on in the institution. If punishment is given only in a spirit of deliberation and justice, little need be feared of any other than wholesome effects upon the recipient and his companions and the administrator of the same.

PUNISHMENTS.

BY F. H. NIBECKER, SUPERINTENDENT GLEN MILLS.

I. Punishments have the same place in reform school that they have in any schools that for the time being take the place of the home and the school; and punishments have the same place in boarding-schools that they have in the general scheme of nature. By nature we mean existence under physical and moral laws. I

suppose it need hardly be argued that the nearer we approximate our theories and practices in ordering our own lives to the course and processes of nature, and whatever is revealed or discovered of the methods of the Creator, the nearer we shall be to perfectly safe and justifiable ground. It is hardly less safe and justifiable ground when we acquit ourselves of any delegated responsibility over others upon the same general principles and by the same general methods that seem to control physical and moral government of men by the great ruling power of the world. It would seem, then, that the question asked would involve a discussion rather of the question of the existence of punishment in the world at all, or else the question of the range and grade of responsibility of the home school for and to its pupils. As the first cannot be intended, and as the second can only be answered by saying that the school for the time being assumes the responsibility of the family and state, the only intention reasonably possible in the question has been recognized in our first sentence. If, then, punishments in a special school for delinquent children have the same place as in the home and state, the same objects must be recognized in punishments.

1. Correction of the transgressor.

2. Deterrent effect upon the transgressor and others.

3. Vindication of the law in the eyes of all as worthy of obedience, and at the same time endowing the law with something like self-vindicating power. No doubt many will argue that punishment as such is out of date, and its place should be taken by substituting continually higher and higher motives, until one be found high enough to induce obedience on the part of the pupil without any need of punishment. I have no stomach for such argument, and no time to waste on the few who really appreciate the terms they are using and believe what they are saying, and not even respect for the much larger number who do not believe as much of the argument as they can understand, but simply prate the sentiment they neither accept nor follow in their own conduct and lives.

1. Correction. Justice demands some return for every action. If the return for good and bad actions is the same or equally advantageous in both cases, the sense of justice is either violated or destroyed. Some kind of punishment or loss of advantage as in nature should follow every misdemeanor.

2. Deterrent. The punishment, whether it be actual infliction or loss, will act as a deterrent from repetition of the same or similar misdemeanor by the sufferer if he consider the inconvenience of the punishment sufficiently undesirable to overbalance any pleasure obtainable by violation of the law.

The certainty of punishment will in like manner act upon others as a deterrent to prevent the commission of offences. It is not probable that the influence upon others will be as active as upon the offender who has experienced the punishment, because the

appreciation of the inconvenience will not be so pronounced in their minds.

3. Vindication of the law. A law dishonored in family or state becomes non-operative and without effect. If only such laws are made in a school as are essential, they must be vindicated or the welfare of the pupils be disregarded. It is a matter of observation that, when no notice is taken of a violation of law, the whole body of observers takes note of the fact, and at once other violations are justified on the ground of the immunity that followed the previous violation. The justification is pleaded with as much confidence as if the law had been specifically abrogated, and I am not sure that the plea should not be considered a valid one.

II. The effect of proper punishment properly administered can hardly be anything but salutary. Pupils recognize justice almost invariably. The result is an awakening of the mind of the pupil to his obligation to conformity, and an effort to avoid cause for the repetition of the punishment. There are cases where one kind or another of punishment does not have expected effect. If thorough experiment proves that all kinds of punishments are alike ineffective, it is evident that the child is abnormal, and must be considered by himself. If his abnormality is not such as to be evident to other pupils, and so justify immunity, it will be necessary to use every endeavor to hedge the pupil round so as to prevent lapse from law-abiding conduct, and, in case of grave or repeated error, vindicate the law for the sake of the many, even if the individual does not receive the full measure of benefit from the infliction.

III. The classification of punishments as proper and improper will depend upon the basic idea upon which conduct of the school is founded. For an establishment that is considered a place of punishment for deeds committed before commitment to the school, some prison ideas in lines of punishment would no doubt be considered permissible.

For a school that is looked upon as boarding-school and home such punishments as would only be natural to penal institutions would seem to be entirely out of place. It is for this reason that confinement in any kind of lockup or cell or even room, if the pupil is not accustomed to occupy the same room when not under punishment, seems entirely incongruous and out of keeping in otherwise homelike boarding-schools for delinquent children. I have no desire to be dogmatic upon the subject or to condemn "locking up," but such is my own feeling on the subject.

If simply confining a pupil is out of keeping with the boarding-school idea, then, of course, any other forms of punishment that savor of distinctively prison notions are certainly obnoxious.

It is much easier to specify a line of punishments that are improper than it is to specify any particular punishments as proper. But the most common practice in the schools of the country will be the best starting-point for specification as to proper punishments.

The marking system that is kept as an absolute record of conduct by which judgment of character and fitness for discharge may be reduced to as near a true basis as possible is the first method of punishment, when the giving of demerits or the withholding of credits lengthens the term of detention by showing the unfitness of the pupil to be returned to his friends.

Another common and justifiable method of punishment is deprivation of privileges. The pupil stands on line at attention, while others play or engage in other recreation. This is an excellent form of correction when judiciously handled, not too long continued, and closely followed up.

Of course there are a multitude of trivial methods of reminder that might be called punishments; but such a classification would be unjust, because they do not reach the dignity of distinctively corrective measures. But nothing should be classed that involves laying hands upon a pupil in any kind of violence. After years of experiment in trying to hedge round a very limited amount of personal liberty in such matters, the conclusion has been reached that absolute prohibition is the only safe rule for officer and pupil.

The most severe and least frequent form of punishment should be corporal punishment. It is upon the question of this kind of punishment that the most difference of opinion is found usually between administrators of special schools and those who are not actively connected with the direct control of children.

The endeavor to avoid corporal punishment is liable to beget evils much worse than the punishment. Harsh treatment that is clandestine and not judicially administered cannot have as good an effect. Corporal punishment is not a long-continued infliction, but is soon over, and the boy can return to his usual occupations and pleasures; and so his mind reassumes its normal condition. No brooding over the condition such as is inevitable in the case of long-continuing correctional methods follows. Most American children look upon a whipping as the just consequence of bad conduct, and so are not shocked or degraded by it. Such punishment should be reserved as a last resort to help a pupil who fails to be helped by all other means. Some statistics would seem to indicate that from one-half to three-fourths of one per cent. of the pupils may need such treatment.

IV. All kinds of punishment should be regulated by daily reports, giving the facts which come under the immediate notice of the responsible head of school. It is wise to allow a certain latitude to the officers in immediate charge of pupils in their cottages or divisions. No classification of punishment according to offences can be justified unless all individuality of treatment is sacrificed.

Corporal punishment should be hedged around with especial restrictions. Investigation of the case by a representative of the central office should be made, and the pupils' claims given full weight.

When corporal punishment is determined to be necessary, it should be inflicted in the presence of the same representative.

Where the rule that all reports shall be made in writing to the family officer and all disciplinary measures be taken through him, it will be found to act as a wise regulator of the kinds and extent of punishments used.

General discussion followed.

Judge M. D. FOLLETT, Ohio.— The last time that General Hayes presided over the National Prison Association this subject came up for discussion. I think that the speakers here so far have failed to describe the reason, the quality, the amount, the extent, and the effect of punishment, and how it applies to the person who receives it. I once heard Warden Brush, of Sing Sing, explain his ideas of punishment. He said they could not stop to spend time over men who deserved punishment. How did he describe the effects of punishment? For the first ten seconds, he said, the man thought it was very nice. In the next ten seconds he thought it was serious. In the next ten seconds he began to think there was a God in Israel. Only three seconds to reach that point! And from that time on he hoped that death would come in a short time. Warden Massie, of Toronto, was there at that time; and he described punishment. He said they used it and could not get on without it, yet he told of one big negro whom they whipped and whipped who made no sign. Afterward the negro said that, if they had whipped him to death, he would never have yielded. What is your punishment for? Warden Brush's man would submit, yes; but he submitted a fiend. Could he reform him after that? Never! The wardens had to admit that severity does fail. Warden Wright, of Allegheny, who laid down his task a few months ago, was warden for twenty-seven years; and he did not use corporal punishment. When asked if he ever failed in making a man yield, he replied, "Never." One or two other wardens testified to the same thing. I remember Mrs. Smith, of the Indiana Prison for Women, once told me that she never put a woman in a dark cell; for "God's clear sunlight softens the human heart." And I am glad to repeat that remark. Superintendent Scott, of Concord, says that the light cell accomplishes the purpose far better than the dark cell in securing the submission of a man. Mr. Scott says that, in his judgment, it is not best to use the lash in a reformatory. When a man submits to exquisite pain, he has not submitted. When he submits by thought, by reflection, then he is conquered.

Mr. JOHN COWNIE, Iowa.— We have a great deal of old fogyism to contend with in handling delinquent boys and girls. In my judgment there is altogether too much punishment and harsh treatment, and too little kindness and sympathy extended to these unfortunate children by the great majority of officers and employees in reforma-

tory institutions. In Iowa we had some experience that has confirmed me in the belief that kindness is more potent in governing this class of children than cruelty and severe punishment. At our Industrial School for Girls a riot broke out one Sunday evening, doors and windows were broken, and the girls of two families were soon in open rebellion. On visiting the school next day, inquiry was made in regard to the cause; and, although there had been complaint before, and the management was not satisfactory, the occasion for the outbreak was furnished by a thoughtless family matron. On Sunday afternoon, while the girls of one family were walking down the aisle in the chapel, a few of them tipped their hats to one side and in a jaunty manner kept step to the music of the organ, their conduct being promptly observed by the matron. Had the matron been a woman with good judgment, she would have been looking the other way just then, and for the time being professed not to have seen the slight misdemeanor, and the attention of the offending girls could have been called to the matter in a kindly manner afterward with far better results; but the matron was not of this kind. The entire family was confined in its building, the mail that is distributed on Sunday afternoon was withheld, the family was deprived of supper, and informed that all were to be punished for the girlish prank of a few thoughtless children. When some of the girls remonstrated with the matron, protesting their innocence, they were told to "hush up," and, if they did not yet know they were on punishment, they would find it out next morning. As the matron was leaving the building to get her own supper, a wash-bowl was hurled through an open window in her direction; and in a few minutes the doors had been broken open, and the girls of that family were on the campus in open rebellion.

Now all is changed. The school is under a new management. Kindness and sympathy have taken the place of the old methods that were too long in vogue, with the result that there has not been a runaway from that institution for two years, and many insist upon staying after the expiration of the age limit. Music has now a prominent place in the school; and a large and excellent orchestra has been developed, literary and industrial work are combined, and no complaint is ever heard, while formerly we had to listen on every visit to tales of harshness and cruelty.

Too many of the officers and employees of reformatory institutions look upon the unfortunate boys and girls as the worst of criminals, treating them harshly and rudely, defeating the very object that it is desired to attain. Few of those children ever knew what it was to have a good home, a father's affection, or a mother's love; for the great majority have been outcasts almost from their birth. What would you and I have been under the same circumstances? Certainly, no better, and perhaps much worse.

When I meet the boys and girls in our industrial schools, and

listen to them while telling of the cruelties and hardships they have undergone, my whole soul goes out in sympathy as I think what I would have been in like circumstances. I am surprised and pained to hear men advocate corporal punishment, cruel and severe, for boys and girls, claiming that pain must be inflicted to insure reformation, when the very brutality of the act rouses the worst passions and defeats the object it was intended to accomplish. Kindness, sympathy, and loving words are far more potent factors in reforming wayward children than harsh treatment: of the latter they have had enough and to spare, while the former has been too long denied for the good of the child and the state.

Mr. CHARLES O. MERICA, of Wisconsin, said that he had tried to get at the animus to the opposition to corporal punishment, that there must be some good reason why so many excellent people are opposed to it: they think that whipping is brutish and therefore demoralizing. They do not believe even in whipping animals. They believe that there is something inherently demoralizing in the reflex influence on the person who administers the punishment. The punishment must be suited to the particular case. If a boy needs correction, he must receive the correction that will save him. To find some form that will not be brutish, but that will correct the boy, is the problem. If that punishment is whipping, the punishment that will be least injurious, that will subside most quickly as regards deleterious effects and go farthest toward saving the child, then let the child be whipped; but never let him be whipped in anger. Let him be whipped by one who loves the child. The child must not be hurt physically, mentally, or morally by punishment; but punishment must bring the child into obedience and respect for law.

Mrs. KATE B. SHERWOOD, of Ohio, said that the question of governing children is a question of the kind of person who does it. To have better government in our schools, our cities, our nation, we must have higher ideals, and hold the children and the people up to those ideals. Excellent effects are obtained in schools where the children are not measured by the best scholarship, but by the best conduct. Physical defects, like bad hearing or eyesight, must be looked after, as often they make a child seem inattentive or heedless, or even insubordinate. They may also have other reasons for apparent indifference. A certain boy seemed to his teacher to deserve punishment. When the cause was investigated, he cried out, "How can I study or do anything when I know that my father is beating my mother?" We must deal patiently and justly with the child, and put men and women in charge of children who have learned the law of spiritual development, and who have a spirit of love and have risen above the idea of brute force and corporal punishment.

Dr. WALTER W. BRANSON, of Golden, Col., superintendent State Industrial School, was pleased to notice the unanimity of opinion that

corporal punishment should not be administered for every offence. That punishment should be administered which is most effectual to the individual. I make it a rule, said he, that no punishment shall be administered till the child is brought before me and I have had a talk with him. Corporal punishment is very rarely given in our school, and I am in hopes that before long we can dispense with it altogether. We should try to educate the laity to believe that our schools are not "reform" schools, in the ordinary sense. They are educational institutions. Boys sometimes come to me after visitors have been round the school, and say, "Why don't you tell people not to call this a reform school?" I admire that spirit among our boys. It shows that they are beginning to think; and, when they begin to think, we can do something with them. To succeed, we must do individual work with boys. It takes much time, but the redemption of a boy is worth time and effort.

Mr. HUGH F. FOX, of New Jersey, said that in England it would not be thought possible to do away entirely with corporal punishment; but the amount administered as compared with twenty years ago is very much less. Great importance is given in England to athletics as a part of the school system, partly for educational value, partly for physical development, but largely because it keeps the boys out of mischief. It gives them scope for their energies: it gives them club spirit, self-confidence, mutual fairness. There is hardly any influence that makes more for morals than thoroughly organized play.

Mr. MICHEL HEYMANN, of New Orleans, was of the opinion that many a boy prefers to be whipped rather than to be locked up on bread and water. The difference between delinquent and other children is not so great as many imagine. The criminals are not all in jail. Such a reformatory as the one at Elmira has better methods for adults than industrial schools have for youth. They teach how *not* to punish. They have different classes, with a system of merits and demerits. Why not at once introduce that into all industrial schools, and deprive children of privileges for punishment? Every educator who is at the head of a reformatory school would confess that the children do not need much punishment. With few exceptions every child can be directed. In private homes the proportion of bad boys and girls is just as large as in these schools. The methods which father and mother employ in correcting their own children should be employed for other children. The most important question to consider is the question of prevention, whether we are at the head of a family, a reformatory, or a prison. As soon as the child is caught doing wrong, we should put our hand on his shoulder and say, "You are in the wrong way"; and we must prevent that child from going any further in the wrong way, and in most cases we can succeed. Such a step has been taken in Chicago and in New York by not bringing children into the common courts. That is an im-

mense step forward. If we can keep the little ones from becoming criminals, from bad environment, then our reformatories and prisons will be empty, and we shall not need any form of punishment.

Miss BERTHA W. JACOBS, Deputy Superintendent State Board of Charity, Boston, Mass.— There seems to be no representative present of the Lancaster State Industrial School. Many of you are acquainted with Mrs. Brackett, for many years superintendent of that school. Her place is now well filled by a woman who worked in the school with Mrs. Brackett, and is familiar with her methods and is wholly in sympathy with her. Corporal punishment was not used under Mrs. Brackett and is not now used. The girls are from twelve to twenty years of age: the law says they may be committed between seven and seventeen, but they are rarely committed under twelve. Some have had a very bad record previous to their commitment, and they are not easily governed; but Mrs. Brackett had a method of her own. She is a woman of strong personality, of fine presence, and great power over girls. One look from her carried to the returned girl a sense of defeat. She felt that she had done what she ought not to have done: she had brought disgrace upon the school. The sight of the superintendent made all this come back to her. Mrs. Brackett governed from the moral standpoint. These girls had been told to do this or that at home, but had never been reasoned with. They had been struck at home, but the beatings had not reformed them; and she did not believe that beating them in the school would reform them. She disciplined them in moral ways, and by appealing to reason, and by a system of rewards. There is a reward for everything,— small rewards it is true. The school is on the family system, with seven houses with twenty-five in each house; and in such a family every little thing counted. They wore different badges, and were advanced according to their merits. When they got up to the white badge, the roll of honor, they had special privileges. They had occasional dances with music, the officers, all women, dancing with them; and very social and pleasant evenings they were. They were made to feel that it was a disgrace to their house to have it do less well than any other house. Consequently, if a girl did anything wrong, she disgraced the house. In all these little ways the tone of the school was raised. As a last extreme was the solitary, first in the girl's own room with bread and milk only. But the solitary without occupation is the very worst thing, the most corrupting thing, with boys or girls. If necessary, it should be given only for a short time, and as the last resort for the worst form of insubordination. They had a room up in the attic with only a skylight and a bed; and, when a girl was put in there and left to herself, by morning she was ready to ask to see the superintendent and to ask her forgiveness. I think the school is still one of the best of its kind. Mrs. Brackett used to say that many visitors came there to ask her how she could govern successfully

without corporal punishment. I have a great interest in it, because, when the girls come out, they are placed out and visited by my department; and I have occasion to know how well they do after the training they get at Lancaster.

Rev. J. H. NUTTING, chaplain of the State institutions, Rhode Island, said that he had known a girl to remain in solitary confinement for seven days for stubbornness; and he had known a boy to remain so long that they had to release him rather than break down his health. He had been whipped himself as a boy, and it had done him good; and he had whipped all but one of his six children, and he believed it had done them good. He did not think that any reform school existed in which there was not corporal punishment or something worse. In the Rhode Island Reform School, with 350 boys, the application of the lash did not average more than three times a month.

Judge BEN. B. LINDSEY, Colorado.— We have sometimes to deal with the worst boys. One of them was brought into the juvenile court for the third time, but there was something in Charlie that appealed to me. The probation officer, who had looked into the case, advised that he be sent to the industrial school. I took that boy up into my chambers, and I got acquainted with him; and we got to be good friends. I told him they all wanted me to send him up, and, if I did not and he went wrong again, that I should get into trouble. Charlie saw the point, and said, "Give me another chance, and let me be your friend." We shook hands. It was a bond, a contract, between us. He went to school; and, after two weeks, I got a "fair" report from him. He had not played "hookey" once. The next time he came with a "good" report, and, finally, with an "excellent" report; and he always received words of encouragement. I have in mind twenty boys of that kind, who have been worked in that way, all of whom have stood right with me. It has taught me this lesson,— that we don't get at the boy. We have got to get into his confidence, and understand his case. We must find out the particular trouble in each case, and use everlasting patience; and in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred you can get on without corporal punishment.

Adjourned at 4.30 P.M.

JOINT SECTION MEETING.

DESTITUTE AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN, JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Friday afternoon, May 30.

The sections were called to order at 2.15 P.M. by Mr. Allison, chairman of Committee on Juvenile Delinquents. Prayer was offered by Rev. George Elliott.

Mr. C. W. Birtwell, chairman of the Committee on Destitute and Neglected Children, was introduced as the presiding officer.

A paper on "Play as a Reformative Agency" was read by Mr. T. F. Chapin, superintendent of the Lyman School for Boys, Westboro, Mass.

PLAY AS A REFORMATIVE AGENCY.

BY T. F. CHAPIN.

Play as a reformative agency may strike the minds of some as an incongruous association of terms. But the thing to do in a reformatory institution is to give the child something to do which is interesting and helpful during every waking hour; and, in that programme, play is a reformative agency, as well as work or study or manual training.

Play is a heritage and perquisite of childhood. Any interest that claims and receives so large a share of the growing child's activity, physical and mental, must be conceded an important place among formative agencies. We all agree that education of the child in right ways is the only hope of making a good member of society of him. We give great attention to the teaching of morals, of appropriate studies, of industrial and manual training. Do we give enough attention to the games and sports which are all the more powerful educators because they do not advertise themselves as educational, and are entered into spontaneously? Left to himself, your boy newly arrived in the reform school wants to play at shooting craps, at policeman, at being robbed by pickpockets. He perhaps enjoys most of all retailing to his fellows in a corner of the playground how he has beaten the "cop," and what he lacks in experience in that direction his imagination supplies in unlimited measure. A fondness for doubtful and perverted modes of amusement needs to be supplanted by a knowledge of and taste for wholesome games of skill and vigorous athletic contests.

How can this be brought about? What is a proper amount of time to give to sports and amusements daily? What have been found to be the most popular and profitable games and pastimes? What do you expect to accomplish by them?

The interest of teachers in the sports, and, if possible, participation in them, help to give a zest for them to the pupils. Personal encouragement to the backward boy to take part, and commendation of even partial success, may be needed to get some boys interested. Sometimes it is necessary to insist that sluggish boys take part. A little judicious pressure many a time results in a good player later. The want of spunk, courage, perseverance, on the part of two or three, will often break up a game. The boys who are easily discouraged and who can be induced to fight to a finish are plainly benefited as really as by perseverance in conquering a difficult task.

The physical drill may be made to contribute to getting boys interested in physical contests of a proper kind. One lesson in five may be profitably given to gymnastic games. With slow boys and boys of a low grade of intelligence, games under the physical instructor are the most profitable form of gymnastic work. It is safe to say that, if the worker recognizes the importance of play as an element in the training of the child, he can get the enthusiasm of the child aroused fully as easily as for any other wholesome thing. But it will not do to assume that, if all other departments are well looked after, *ergo* the playground is taking care of itself because no fights are going on.

The proper amount of time to be given to play and recreation must vary somewhat with the age. The amount actually allowed will vary widely with different schools and with what is reckoned as recreation. Some will reckon all time not spent in sleep, work, school, and meals as recreation; others, only those hours given definitely to sports. Leaving Sunday out of the account, there are one hundred and forty-four hours in the week. If nine hours a day, or fifty-four per week, be allowed for sleep, nine hours for meals, nine hours for care of the person, fifty hours for school and work, twenty-two waking hours will be left for recreation; and, as an average for all ages, this is perhaps a reasonable allowance.

Football in its season is deservedly popular. Hockey goes well with skating, and among our New England hills coasting is no mean pastime in winter. Then there are the indoor games of blind man's buff, drop the handkerchief, and many similar games.

For quiet amusement there are checkers, dominos, chess, and a number of different games with cards similar to authors. Kokamo and similar games require something of the skill of the billiard player, and are taking. Ping pong and pong pong, the latest fad in indoors games, I have not had the opportunity to test with my boys, but think they might be popular and useful. For some boys, head work has quite an attraction. Some boys will spend hours in fashioning various articles out of the bright-colored, tiny bits of glass. Basket-weaving also has some attraction. The use of games seems almost too obvious to demand much elucidation. Besides, I am supposed only to bow the subject in for my fellow-workers to entertain and descant upon.

The next point taken up was, What distinction may be properly made between those classed as destitute and delinquent in our large cities and those committed as destitute and homeless?

Mr. ALLISON, Superintendent Cincinnati House of Refuge.— The destitute and delinquent youth of our cities form two distinct classes, and ought to be treated as such. It is true that those who are destitute of homes soon become delinquent in morals. But those who have had a very little observation of our institutions for child-saving know that very many homeless and destitute children reach them who are not at all guilty of moral delinquency. As these two classes of youth are not at all alike in their necessities, they are not to be treated alike in their training and discipline. It is little less than a crime against humanity to herd little boys and girls, and even larger boys and girls, of good character, with boys or girls of depraved habits and character. True, they may be graded into separate divisions, or families; but grades must be imperfect and artificial at best. And there are occasions so frequent when the inmates come together in general exercises that there must be more or less unwelcome contact between them, especially in institutions conducted on the congregate plan. The two classes require very different forms of training. The delinquent juvenile must be restrained of his personal liberty in a sense injurious to the proper training of a child who is only unfortunate. The delinquent child requires different treatment at the hands of his teachers and care-takers, and therefore teachers and care-takers of a different type. If the two classes are thrown into one community, the severity of the discipline will injure some, and the relaxation of it will irritate and injure others. It is not only injurious, it is wrong and cruel, to subject helpless boys and girls of clean habits and good character to the restraints and methods which must prevail in reformatory institutions. It is a hopeless task to expect contentment and cheerful obedience to requirements of such an institution as the incorrigible when other boys and girls of the same institution are permitted privileges which are not accorded to them. Nothing kindles keener resentment than any appearance of favoritism in the shop or school-room. The most depraved lad in any reformatory considers himself entitled to equal and exact justice at the hand of those who are placed over him. He is disposed to look upon the most necessary and wholesome restraint as an oppression. And, when that restraint is relaxed in favor of another and denied to himself, he is naturally exasperated and discontented with his lot or breaks out in rebellion. One such boy may corrupt and inflame others, and have more influence than a dozen teachers may be able to correct. Walls and bars are not suitable to the training of children who are not disposed to offend or do wrong. And, when walls and bars are dispensed with in a reformatory, they must be dispensed with for all inmates, if any good to many is not also to be dispensed with.

A kindergarten department, or an orphanage asylum of any kind, as an adjunct to a reformatory, is a mere makeshift to save public expense, without another sound reason to support the unholy alliance. If the saving of money is the sole object in view, why not dispense with all public institutions and all efforts at child-saving? If the rescue of child life is a worthy object of public expenditure, then let us have the means and facilities which are appropriate and adequate. It would be as rational to gather the adult poor and infirm and insane and criminals and felons all into one institution, where they could be housed and fed and kept out of the way, as it is to keep our youths of all kinds in one public institution for their proper training and development. I do not speak of the stigma which, in the estimation of a great many good people, attaches to the child who has been a subject of reformatory discipline. Any proper application of the rational principles of pedagogy or penology to the homeless, destitute, and delinquent children of our cities must begin in a proper classification of them.

A paper on "The Distinction between Destitute and Delinquent Children" was read by Mr. George B Robinson, of the New York Catholic Protectory. Discussion followed.

THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN DESTITUTE AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

BY GEORGE B. ROBINSON.

The law of the State of Illinois defines a "dependent and neglected child" as follows: —

"One who for any reason is destitute and homeless, or abandoned or dependent upon the public for support, or has not proper parental care or guardianship, or who habitually begs or receives alms, or who is found living with vicious or disreputable persons, or whose home, by reason of neglect, cruelty, or depravity on the part of the parents, guardians, or other persons in whose care it may be, is an unfit place for such child, or any child under the age of eight years who is found peddling or selling any article, singing or playing any musical instrument upon the street, or giving any public entertainment."

The "delinquent child" is described as "a child under the age of sixteen years, who violates any law of the state, or any city or village ordinance."

These clauses define sufficiently the destitute and delinquent and the destitute and homeless of our cities.

It has been customary in the National Conferences to consider destitute and neglected children in a separate section. It would

seem that the practice of some of the state conferences in studying destitute, neglected, and delinquent together is to be preferred. The holding of this joint meeting appears to recognize the fact that they are inseparable as subjects for discussion. The great mass of those so designated, who make up the population of the institutions of our large cities, are the product of the same conditions, and should be considered from the same standpoint.

I hope that the Conference may hereafter combine the sections represented in this meeting, and consider destitute, neglected, and delinquent children under one head. A committee on children's homes, orphan asylums, and nurseries might be established for more convenient and satisfactory division of subjects.

It is recognized by all practical authorities that, if children are taken from parents, it should always be through a regular judicial process, so that the parental rights and duties shall not be set aside by arbitrary private action nor be wantonly overlooked. Therefore, provision has been made in almost every community for the legal commitment of destitute, homeless, and delinquent children by poor officers and magistrates to state and private institutions for their protection and reformation. These commitments are generally indeterminate, the time of detention being within the power of the authorities of the institution to decide. The intention of the law is that the child be returned to its parents or guardian so soon as they are fit and able to care for it, or when its reformation is accomplished.

The classification, in the institution, of these children should be made with the greatest care and discretion, according to disposition, mental and moral characteristics, having regard to age when advisable, and dividing them into at least four divisions.

The cause of commitment is generally a secondary consideration in the classification. Children under eight years of age should form a class by themselves. There will be some with abnormal tendencies, who must be separated from the other classes. We are considering, in this classification, children under sixteen years of age as committed for various causes in the city of New York to the New York Catholic Protectory and similar institutions under the laws of our state.

The Protectory received, during the months of January, February, March, and April, children committed for disorderly conduct, ungovernable, no proper guardianship, petit larcency, truancy, vagrancy, malicious mischief, attempt at burglary, grand larcency, and destitution.

Appeals are frequently made to the imagination of sensitive people to prevent the commitment of destitute and homeless children to institutions for the reformation of the delinquent, for fear of the stigma which, as they say, may attach to such commitment. While justly protesting against the idea of punishment being associated with the institution or reformatory, some philanthropists are willing to brand

the poor children committed under the latter title as unfit to reside in the same vicinity, and would have them separated according to the technical definition of their offences by the commitment of the magistrate.

The reasoning of those who take this position is fallacious. In the great majority of cases their offences are the result of association with wild companions of the streets and tenements, of environment and conditions of life for which they are not responsible.

How many of the children of the well-to-do portion of our people would resist the temptations of the poor children of our cities?

The distinction which may be properly made between the destitute and delinquent and the destitute and homeless is based on the individual character of the children. The separation into classes as indicated can be done only by the teachers of the reformatory. They are all amenable to the same kind attention and instruction.

In the New York Catholic Protectory the period of residence in the House of Reception and quarantine, before entrance into the regular classes (about three weeks) gives opportunity to the reverend brothers and sisters in charge for the study of the child's disposition, moral character, etc., and enables them to designate its proper place in the institution.

I have been surprised to read the following from the pen of a prominent member of this Conference: —

"Many high-spirited boys, through wild associates or lack of proper home influences, become wayward, but do not require *institutional training*. It is an offence against humanity to deface unnecessarily the escutcheon of a boy with a criminal record, the effects of which can never be overcome."

What is the remedy? He says: "The parents may be fined and the child returned to them, or it may be held on probation with its parents," etc.

The gentleman referred to loses from view the fact that, in almost all of these cases of neglected and delinquent children, the fault is in the home, the surroundings, and the defects of parents; and, at least for a while, absolute separation is necessary, and new associations are required to place the child in the path of improvement. Probation can do much; and, according to the reports we receive from Denver and Chicago, it is the cure-all for delinquent children. Still, we hold it is available only for those with fairly good home conditions. We cannot consent to the theory that a criminal record is established by the commitment of the child to a reformatory institution, nor is it our experience that the community accepts any such interpretation.

From 80 to 85 per cent. of the children committed to the New York Catholic Protectory are returned in due time to their parents or relatives; and, as a careful investigation is made of the homes before their discharge, we continue visitation only in exceptional cases.

From the time of its establishment the Protectory has yearly placed a large number of children in country districts, and has recently provided a home at No. 417 Broome Street, New York City, where boys without parents or proper home influences can board until they receive sufficient wages to support them in respectable private homes. Every provision is made for their comfort and convenience, and the boys are giving satisfaction in many responsible business houses in the city. It seldom occurs that objection is made to a boy because he has been committed to the New York Catholic Protectory.

Is there a member of this audience who cannot point to men of prominence in various professions who have yielded to temptations in youth, and have been lifted up in their young manhood to become teachers and exemplars of morals to the community?

If thousands of our youthful offenders are to be regarded as having "criminal records" because of the necessary enforcement of municipal laws providing for their commitment to reformatories, we should despair of the future. It is no doubt true that the number of the children of the poor requiring the discipline and instruction of the reformatory is increasing.

It is for me more agreeable to entertain the hopeful spirit of another of our members. I quote the words of our chairman, Mr. Allison: —

"The need of the dependent delinquent is not reformation, but *formation:* there must be builded up a right way of thinking; an adequate view of life, its objects, its capacity, and its duties, the inspiration of truth and honor and whatever is of good report. By every possible means, then, turn his face from the evils of the life from which *he has been rescued*, and present to him the contrasts of the true and healthful life which are opening before him. Be sure that under the worst aspect that may be presented beneath tangled hair and grimy cheeks and soiled and tattered garments there lives a soul, soiled, too, perhaps, like the body needing to be washed and cleansed, but capable of being made sweet and clean. Too much stress cannot be laid upon this doctrine, as it presents the only logical foundation upon which right work for the child may be established."

Discussion followed on methods of cultivating individuality and preventing institutionizing effects.

Mr. F. H. Nibecker.— The two criticisms that are associated in talk about schools of the kind that we represent are that they destroy individuality and encourage dependence, because things come so easy to the pupils. To deal with the latter subject first, the question should be asked, What children are not dependent, and what children do not get their needs supplied with even less close supervision than

pupils of our schools? Fortunately for the work, most heads of such schools have families of children of their own in the schools. Let any of them inquire how many children of their own contribute as much to their support as do the pupils of their schools contribute to their support, and also in how many cases their own children are held as strictly to account for what they receive as the pupils of their schools. Children should be dependent, and their wants must be supplied, unless the monstrous heresy of some nationalities, that a man's little children are his wealth, is to be encouraged.

There are two classes of institutions to be considered. The first retains children for a long term of years, and does not contain in its organization the characteristics that are natural to the life of children of the age of those who make up the population of the institution.

The second retains children comparatively only a short term, and provides in its organization every characteristic of natural child life. The average time of detention of all the schools for delinquents in the United States would not exceed two years, I am satisfied.

In nearly all of these schools there is a care-free but strenuous existence, in which study, work, and play are used in as carefully balanced proportions as are the remedies of a physician in a prescription. Individual interest is stimulated by emulation. Pride is cultivated by reward for attainment. Individual tendencies of mental inclination are given free vent in undirected amusement or true play.

Now the question that arises is this: What part of such a life tends in the time it is lived to crush out or prevent the development of individuality? Certainly, it can hardly be the time of the continuance of the life, as the best educational thought abroad and to a degree in America is more and more demanding the education of even young children in boarding-schools, which in no form of organization differ from our schools, excepting in so far as they lack many facilities furnished by ours. Two years, during which mail and personal communication are constantly kept up with the family and friends, are all too short under the circumstances described to make a machine out of a living, earnest human being.

But, if one still contends that the results follow, let us inquire which part of the life is responsible for them. Can the school of letters that is modelled upon the basis of the best city schools, with graduate teachers of approved experience, furnished with every facility that the best practice approves, have any more evil effects upon the boy's mental life than do the public schools with all of their known faults and dangers to children attending them?

Can it be, then, that it is the time given to some useful, educational industry, in which the boy's imitative and creative faculties are drawn upon to their full capacity, is responsible for the dire result?

If not either of these parts of the life in the school, can it be the recreation hours, which in all schools, I suppose, exceed either the

hours of study or work, and which in my own school, including meal hours, are more than three-quarters of the combined hours of work and study? There does not seem to be anything in childish amusement with balls and marbles and peggies and sleds and skates and other means of diversion under the open sky, in the pure, sweet air of the country, to break down a child's independence and make him a nonentity. Play too much directed and too much supervised ceases to serve its place as play, but very little of such excess of supervision is found.

There remains only the home life of the group of children that are associated together in the cottage. I neglect, in considering this question, the few remaining congregate schools, because they are so much in the minority and continue to exist only because the efforts to replace them with schools upon the family plan have not been so far successful. The size of the family is persistently cited as vitiating the working out of the idea. There are some who still remember seeing large natural families with ten or twelve children, and can compare in their minds the benefits, pleasures, and education to be derived from such a family with the corresponding results to the lone child of many more modern households. It is true the idea suggested may be carried to an absurdity that would run counter to the very principle upon which the family plan is based; but, nevertheless, a justifiable use of the suggestion is possible. For, when the notion that a considerable number of children in a family may be beneficial is supplemented with the fact that an institution family may be so graded that the wants, capabilities, and inclinations of its members are similar, it may be inferred that quite a large number may be profitably handled in a group without in any way sacrificing any valuable feature of child education. If no such feature is sacrificed by the method of caring for the child for the short time that he remains in the school, it is not at all probable that he will be changed in nature or natural characteristics. It is deemed wise by many to place children in just such association in order to develop an individuality of a true kind by bringing the child into contact with many others and with the requirements of organized social conditions, and by the development of his nature under such stimulus and restraint bring out what is best in him, and teach him his relative importance or insignificance in the world.

I suppose, however, when some, if not many, people use the word "individuality" in the connection that it is used in our theme, they really mean individualism. The cause of delinquency in the majority of cases is this same offensive individualism.

When men or women, boys or girls, fail to recognize that there are other beings besides themselves in the world, when they fail to recognize that others' rights and feelings have equal claim for recognition with their own, when they fail to subordinate self to the associated body, when they fail to recognize usage and convention as

established by long practice, then are developed delinquents, because of offensive individualism. Such are most of the juvenile delinquents who come to our schools, and the association with others under a school régime that requires the recognition of the social body and the observance of wholesome self-restraint is just the life that is calculated to teach the true relation of the individual to society and of the child to the seniors.

Mr. ROBINSON — The New York Catholic Protectory placed out about 400 children last year. Forty-six children that were received in one week were most of them placed out. That shows that our placing out system is larger than that of most of the societies of the country. Within the last few months our institution has established a home in New York for boys who go out from the Protectory who have no relatives, boys of fourteen or fifteen who have lived in the city all their lives. We believe it is better for many to take occupation in the city. Since the first of January about fifty boys have been taken into business houses from this institution. I can get from their employers first-class references in regard to these boys, from Wanamaker's, Lord & Taylor's, and others.

Mr. Robinson closed by relating some instances showing how difficult it is to distinguish between the two classes under discussion. "These children," said he, "are all virtually of the same class. They are not to be treated differently. Children should not be classified as criminals. The distinctions that are often made are mischievous and demoralizing, and we should not undertake to separate the two classes in the discussion of them. The good name of children should always be protected."

JAMES M. DICK, Superintendent Boys' Home, Montreal, Can.— For nineteen years I have been superintendent of a boys' home. We call it simply a Christian home for boys. Any boy can come into it who is destitute. If he is dirty and ragged, we clean and clothe him and get a situation for him in the city. We teach the boy, first of all, that he is to honor God, love the word of God, and begin and end the day by prayer. If a boy has stolen, we teach him to steal no more, but rather labor with his hands, that he may have to give to him that needeth. We take boys from half-parents, boys who sleep out nights, and are on the downward road. I have two boys whose father is a commercial traveller, who cannot control them. We have one boy who went into a large house and stole an ornament. That was two years ago. We found him out, and returned the ornament; and we have never known him to steal since. We do all we can by moral suasion. We do not lick them. There is no use in that. We try to teach them along the line of what is right. I sometimes go just as far as I can, and then I have to turn the case over to my

good wife. She generally does what I cannot do. I have known boys whom I could do nothing with, who, after a half-hour of talk and prayer with my wife, would come out of the room with the determination to do what is right. Nine times out of ten that is effective. We put the lads out at trades, but they come back to us as to their home. We try to put the home life foremost, and we act only as father and mother. The boys can earn a dollar and a half a week. This gives them a suit of clothes for Sunday and one for every day. By the time a boy can earn $2.50 a week, he pays his own board, and has learned how to spend his money and how to keep it, so that he may buy his boots. Up to that time he gives me his money, and I give him so much of it for pocket-money, ten or fifteen or twenty cents; and I am always on the lookout that he does not spend it foolishly. When he has been two years with us, he has learned to look at "baith sides o' a penny" before he spends it. We have sent out a great many lads who are filling situations in the city. Several who were with us ten years ago are now earning eight or nine or ten hundred a year. I heard one of my old boys preaching in one of our churches, whom I took out of the general hospital on two crutches — for he had but one leg — ten years since. To-day he is a noble young man, doing a great work for humanity and for his Master. Sometimes you seem to think that you are accomplishing nothing, and your heart is crushed; but after a while comes something that cheers you. A few weeks ago I had a letter from the Philippine Islands from one of my boys, now in the American army. He went to the Cuban war first, and served through it. He says in his letter that what he learned in our home made a man of him. A lad who had become addicted to drink and committed forgery was afterward in our home, and he is now a leading merchant in a Canadian city. The difference between delinquent and destitute children is very small. Many a lad comes before the magistrate, and the magistrate does not know to which class he belongs. We are only a small city, where facts can be easily learned; and I am never backward about taking a boy after his first or second offence. Some boys come before a magistrate for their first offence; but I know other boys who have committed twenty offences, and have never been caught. I have come to the conclusion that the whole trouble begins at home. When the children were young, they were not controlled. They were allowed to go as they pleased and do as they liked; and, when they got to be sixteen years old, they were breaking the hearts of father and mother. The other day a magistrate telephoned to me to come down to the court, for a boy had been arrested who knew me. The judge said, I am not going to take this boy and make him a charge on the municipality. The boy was put on probation with his father, with the understanding that, if he could not control him, the boy would have to go to jail. I told the father to use his common sense in controlling the boy, to watch over him, and to love

him, and he would find that the boy might live to be a blessing to him many years to come.

Mr. FREDERIC ALMY, Buffalo.— In regard to juvenile courts I wish to say that we have now had such a court for over a year in Buffalo. It meets in a building distant from the police court or other courts, and has ten unpaid probation officers. We have noticed two results especially,— a decrease in the number of commitments to the truant school and to reformatories, and an increase in the number of children arrested. The first result was natural; for many children are now put on probation at home, at the expense of the parents, who would have been sent to the truant school or to a reformatory at the public charge. The increased number of arrests is due to the fact that formerly juvenile offenders were not often arrested. The police officers knew that the judge would not send a boy away for petty offences, such as picking coal from the railroad track or breaking windows; and, if he were arrested for such things, a rebuke meant so little that the boy, fresh from court, would jeer at the officer. Probation is taken more seriously. The children do not like to have to report every week for months. The officers find it a good thing, and make many more arrests. In fact, the number of arrests has so increased that at a recent session of the court Judge Murphy recommended legislation which should make convictions in the juvenile court inadmissible as evidence of character in either civil or criminal actions, so that mere boyish peccadilloes shall not constitute a criminal record.

Judge B. B. LINDSEY, Colorado.— We have in our state no juvenile court law or probation system as they have in Illinois and a few other states; yet, with such laws as we have, we have succeeded in maintaining one of the most perfect juvenile courts in the country.

Our method of procedure would require some detailed explanation, which will be fully set forth in the report which will be published in pamphlet form and issued about the first of September, which we would be glad to mail to any one interested in the subject, on application to the county court, Denver, Col.

We have tried probably seven hundred boys in our juvenile court during the eighteen months since it was established. We have had a great many cases of habitual truancy, but I do not believe we have yet sent a boy to the Industrial School for truancy alone. Where it has been necessary to make a commitment for this offence, it is generally because there is connected with it some more serious offence. Under our law a boy or girl under sixteen years of age, committing what in the eyes of the law would be a criminal offence (for instance, burglary), may be charged with and tried for what is termed by our statute "disorderly conduct." The evidence of disorderly conduct would in a criminal case be that of burglary; but the offence is not even so termed in our proceeding, and the child is not regarded in the eyes of the law as a criminal. He is looked upon as

misguided, misdirected, and in need rather of aid and assistance than punishment and discouragement. Under the probation system, which we have established without any direct statute to sanction it, we have succeeded in reforming nearly all of the incorrigible boys brought into our court at home. We have, in connection with this system, what we call the report system. If the child is of school age, a condition of its parole or probation is that it shall attend school regularly and bring to the court at the morning session of every juvenile court day a written report from its teacher, detailing the character of its conduct at school.

The juvenile division of our court is held every other Saturday. The morning session is devoted to receiving these reports and hearing complaints, if any, against any of the probationers. The afternoon is devoted to the trial of new cases. In the basement of our court-house we have a magnificent rain, or shower, bath-room; and all the boys are required to pass through this room before appearing in court. Each probationer comes in contact with the court personally. We furnish to them good literature; and the probation officer makes it his business to assist, as far as possible, all boys above school age in obtaining employment. It is also his business in certain neighborhoods to see that troublesome "gangs" are broken up by requiring the boys of school age to attend school, and those above school age to go to work. Our school law provides for school attendance officers, and until recently we have only had one such officer. We now have two; and they both perform, in addition to their duties as school attendance officers, the duties of probation officers.

Regarding the question of classification, our experience is that we cannot lay down any satisfactory test or rule by which to differentiate or distinguish between delinquent boys. Some of our best boys have been those who were convicted of what is ordinarily regarded as burglary or larceny, and some of our worst boys have been merely habitual truants.

I think that about the worst boy that ever came into the county court came out of the Home for Dependent Children. I do not say this as any reflection upon that institution. This particular child was apparently a confirmed thief. I remember this boy told me that he did not see any use in trying to be good, because he had no friends and the other boys did. I took an interest in him, and he is one of my correspondents. He has been on the roll of honor, I am glad to say, for a number of months regularly. It seems to please and encourage him immensely that I take so much interest and pride in this fact. It presents a lesson that might be applied with profit to many similar cases.

EDWARD C. RUNGE, M.D., Superintendent Insane Asylum, St. Louis, Mo.— It is hard that children should be brought to court for "committing crime." A child cannot commit a crime: they are

in the same class as the insane in that respect. What is the advantage in sending a bad child back to the home where he has become bad? Is it not like sending an insane patient back to the home and surroundings where he has become insane? You will have difficulty in classifying children until you have the trained psychologist, who will take the child's parental history, his environment, and all other facts into consideration, and who can then tell you whether you can place a child in its own home or in some other home, or in a proper school to the best advantage.

Mr. C. O. MERICA, Superintendent Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys.— We have a juvenile court in Milwaukee, but I think it will be found necessary to have special laws for their establishment. As to institutions, let us not do away with them too fast, or think that a method is not good because it is not *wholly* good, because there may be some criticism of it. I want to give what I think is the basis of classification between the dependent and the delinquent, the one acted upon frequently by judges. If a child has committed a statutory misdemeanor or offence, then he is a delinquent. If not and he is neglected and destitute, he is a dependent. I think we have no right to speak of a child as *a criminal* child. I object to any child under sixteen being called a criminal, even though he may have committed murder. He cannot be considered a criminal till he has reached the age of definite responsibility. You cannot measure the imagination of undeveloped childhood by statutes. You cannot follow the method of the friend who wants to make a psychological study of what is back of us. We have got to work with the present. I do not believe that any child who has a decent, self-supporting, respectable home,— I do not mean a home of comfort — ought to be sent away from home for any offence whatever, when that is his first offence. His home is the best place. Give him a chance there on probation. Don't call him a criminal, nor even a delinquent. Of course there might be some exceptions to this rule, but that is the principle which should guide us. On the other hand, if a boy has learned to live on the street, sleeping in boxes, travelling on freight trains, and getting his food from back doors, he is a vagrant, whether he has committed any statutory offence or not. He is on his way to ruin, and you may as well place him as quickly as possible where he will have corrective influences.

Judge LINDSEY.— I do not want to be understood as saying that I oppose a law to establish juvenile courts. I think every state should have one, but it is not necessary to wait for one.

Mr. W. H. ALLEN, General Secretary State Charities Aid Association, New Jersey.— A friend just asked me to make a real distinction between destitute and delinquent children, but I am afraid that I cannot do this. In fact, I confess that I do not see the importance of such a distinction. Whether a boy is destitute of clothes or food or merely of uplifting environment, whether he has stolen or

has broken windows on his way from school or is hungry, what he needs is a friend. He finds that friend sometimes in a man like Judge Lindsey, who presides over the juvenile court of Denver, sometimes in a man like the last speaker, who superintends a large reformatory, or again in some leader in child-placing work, like Mr. Fox. It must be of minor importance to attempt to draw a technical distinction between destitution and delinquency among children, when every individual boy or girl ought to be befriended with reference to the immediate individual need.

We are trying to solve the general problem of making the community the friend of all needy children. Through a monthly devoted to the charities and corrections of New Jersey, the State Charities Aid Association is attempting to express and to mould public opinion, so that progressive ideas shall not be limited to one judge or one charity worker here and there, but be common to the whole community. A recent editorial urged school officers and pupils to devote a portion of the commencement programmes to the need of probation officers in New Jersey, not only in the interest of the probation system, but also for the sake of the audiences, who would be pleased with the discussion of vital problems. This editorial led Mrs. C. B. Alexander, of Hoboken to offer two prizes of $35 and $15 for the best essays by high school graduates on the Probation Officer in New Jersey. Contestants were told to apply to their county judge, prosecutor, sheriff, etc., for facts, and were also referred to persons within the state prominently connected with the agitation for the probation system. As an immediate result, the attention of hundreds of earnest people has been focussed on the problem of juvenile delinquency. We have been flooded with letters asking for information. As a result of this stirring up of the matter we shall probably have fifteen additional probation officers. We feel that it is focussing the attention of earnest people on the problem of juvenile delinquency, which will result in giving to these children the friends we wish to give to them.

Adjourned at 5 P.M.

JUVENILE DELINQUENTS SECTION MEETING.

Saturday Morning, May 31, 1902.

Called to order at 10 A.M. by Chairman Allison.

The purpose of this special meeting was to discuss the need of a greater number of section meetings for the Reformatory Section than is usually arranged for in the programme of the National Conference, and to take such action as seemed advisable. There was a large attendance of officials connected with the various reformatory

institutions of the country, and the opinion was unanimous that more time should be allowed the Reformatory Section. Some of the members advocated holding a section meeting every forenoon and afternoon during the Conference. After long discussion a resolution was unanimously adopted as follows: —

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction be petitioned to allow the Reformatory Section: —

1. One general evening session.
2. One section meeting each afternoon but one.
3. Two morning meetings for "round table discussions" for superintendents, officers, and members of official boards of bodies engaged in reformatory work.

(Signed by)

James Allison, *Chairman.*	Mrs. John B. Elain.
Mrs. E. T. Bland.	T. F. Chapin.
Ophelia L. Amigh.	E. M. Caslin.
Walter W. Branson.	F. H. Nibecker.
Lucy M. Sickels.	E. E. York.
E. P. Wentworth.	Mrs. Wm. Trelease.
W. W. Mayo.	Mrs. W. G. Fairbank.
Mrs. T. W. Robinson.	W. C. Ball.
Della F. Wentworth.	Fannie F. Morse.
Mrs. Wm. W. Bell.	George B. Robinson.
W. G. Fairbank.	W. B. Carpenter.

Monday morning, June 2, 1902.

The meeting was called to order at 10 A.M. by Chairman Allison.

F. H. Nibecker, superintendent of House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa., opened the discussion on "Play as a Reformative Agency."

Sleep, proper food, proper mental training, proper physical training, proper moral training, proper relaxation mental and physical, and proper play are all essential parts of a child's life during its formative stages. Why, then, speak of them as reformative agencies with reference to a school for delinquents, any more than in a school for children who have not proven themselves abnormal to their social surroundings? It has been the fault of some schools that they have considered themselves reform schools, and have looked about for reformative agencies instead of facing the fact that a school which would be best for any child will be the best for the involuntary pupils of the state.

The question probably grows out of the fact that some schools have considered it necessary to put into their plan of conduct something of a punitive nature, and have made the day's life of the pupil so exacting that play has found little recognition. I cannot refer to

the present schedule of any school, as I have sought no information on the subject recently. But not many years ago a schedule was referred to me for suggestion; and, when it had been worked out, the result showed two hours and one-quarter out of the twenty-four were devoted to meals and recreation.

Strictly speaking, play is not a reformative agency, as it does not impress the mind with any special truth concerning life or character. Play is natural action without distinct object in view: it is care-free occupation, it is freedom of fancy untrammelled by bounds of reason and unlimited by the rigid lines of possibility. Consequently, play is not distinctively a reformative agency; for such an agency, in order to compel change of character, must either so blacken the past life of the subject as to make it repulsive or so glorify the future possibilities as to make their attraction irresistible. Of course, play does neither of these things, nor even leads in the direction of either of them.

But that does not prove that play has no part in a school for delinquent children. Indeed, it has an important part in the régime of every well-organized school of that or any other kind. So important, and yet so axiomatic, is the part play has to fulfil in the life of every child that it is very difficult to state just its function.

The child cannot be in a normal and receptive condition without having its regular portion of play each day; and no child can be properly taught to the best advantage, at least, who is not in a healthy condition of mind and body.

To keep the normal balance of child life is the function of play in any condition.

The paper was farther discussed by Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels, Adrian, Mich.; Mrs. Ophelia L. Amigh, Geneva, Ill.; Mr. and Mrs. W. G. Fairbank, Middletown, Conn.; Mrs. Myrtle B. Eyler, Trenton, N.J.; Mrs. Emma F. Bland, Milwaukee, Wis.; Miss Elizabeth Clohan, Salem, W. Va.; George B. Robinson, Westchester, N.Y.; Charles O. Merica, Waukesha, Wis.; Eugene E. York, Plainfield, Ind.

Mr. T. F. Chapin, superintendent Lyman School for Boys, Westboro, Mass., read the following paper: —

DIETARIES.

BY T. F. CHAPIN.

Many of the sins and shortcomings which produce the reform school child are traceable to dietetic causes. Who has not seen on the streets of our great cities the pinched, sharp little face, and a

hand so quick as to elude even the vigilant eye of the street vender as it purloined some coveted article of his stock? The children forced to steal by drunken parents are numerous. The number who must go without proper food, that dissolute parents may supply themselves with rum and tobacco, is still greater. 50 per cent. of the boys sent to the Lyman School report intemperance on the part of one or both parents, and subsequent investigation largely confirms their statements. These children have, in many cases, badly co-ordinated nerves, are abnormally excitable, subject to violent fits of temper, chorea, epilepsy, or the incipient stages of it. Scrofulous taint is common. Such children have not had a diet calculated to make a decent body. They need physical regeneration. They come to us at or just before the most critical period of life, from a physical standpoint,— at the time when the system is making enormous demands, when the physical basis of a sturdy manhood is being laid or undermined, when appetites and passions are moulding. Whatever diet tends to abnormally excite is injurious. The fostering of an appetite for simple and wholesome food is a direct contribution to subsequent comfort and happiness in the life of the individual. The formation of a taste for a considerable variety of food and for good cooking is also desirable, not rich,— but varied and wholesome.

I suppose a bill of fare is hardly avoidable, but it ought not to be too stereotyped an affair. It is inevitable that some things will appear on certain days a good part of the year; but there may be considerable variety in the menus if they are reviewed each week and such changes and variations as the season and markets will permit are made. It goes without saying that the good cook will find many ways of helping out the variety with usable left-overs. It is necessary that the menus should be overlooked by some one who has given some attention to the subject of a properly balanced ration. This does not require a specialist, although the assistance of one on occasion may prove a most helpful thing. There are simple tables in almost any good treatise on food values which will enable the intelligent layman to determine whether or not the list of foods for a series of meals contains requisite constituents in the proper proportions.

Condiments should be used and permitted only sparingly. Their tendency is harmful. Meat, which is looked to so generally to supply the nitrogenous element, may well be curtailed, and the legumes and nut foods substituted in part for it. Meat in considerable quantity is decidedly objectionable for developing boys, on account of its stimulating nature. For similar reasons and on other grounds tea and coffee should be practically prohibited. The cereal substitute may be used if a warm drink is deemed indispensable. A liberal allowance of milk — say, one quart to each person daily —is a desirable component of a diet for growing boys.

The subjoined menus are selected from a total of fifty-two used

the past year at Lyman School for Boys, and fairly represent the different seasons; although the menu for officers in the cottages is more elaborate than the bill of fare indicates. The food for the boys is prepared in a central kitchen, and sent to the cottage dining-rooms.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING JAN. 27, 1902.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk. D. Corned-beef hash, pickles, baked plum pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Bacon, eggs. Hamburg steak, horticultural beans.
Tues.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Vegetable soup, prune dessert. S. Bread, milk, apricot sauce.	Chipped beef. Finnan haddie, apricot pie.
Wed.	B. Steamed rice, molasses, bread, milk. D. Baked liver, string beans, potatoes, bread pudding. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Ham, eggs. Steak.
Thurs.	B. Yuco, sugar, milk, bread. D. Stewed beans, brown bread, hot slaw, steamed apricot pudding. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Tripe, mackerel. Braised beef, stewed tomatoes.
Fri.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Fish chowder, baked rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, molasses.	Salt cod. Baked fish, canned peas.
Sat.	B. Succotash, bread, milk. D. Roast beef, onions, potatoes, blanc mange. S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Lamb chops. Apple pie.
Sun.	B. Cream of green peas, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, pickles, prune tapioca pudding. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Left-over toast. Chicken, horticultural beans.

Sauce for officers: plum marmalade, peach.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING FEB. 24, 1902.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk. D. Vegetable soup, Indian pudding. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Bacon, eggs. Steak pie with potato crust.
Tues.	B. Cream of corn, bread, milk. D. Hamburg loaf, potatoes, onions, blanc-mange. S. Bread, milk, molasses.	Steak. Prune pie.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Wed.	B. Fish hash, bread, milk. D. Lyonnaise tripe, string beans, potatoes, brown betty. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Chipped beef. Macaronied beef.
Thurs.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, brown bread, cold slaw, apple tapioca. S. Bread, milk, cheese.	Hamburg steak. Cold corned beef, apple pie.
Fri.	B. Canned beans, bread, butter, milk. D. Clam chowder, railroad pudding. S. Bread, butter, apricot sauce.	Steak.
Sat.	B. Bean soup, bread. D. Boiled mutton, caper sauce, potatoes, turnips, mince pie, prune sauce. S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Baked or broiled fish.
Sun.	B. Tomato bisque, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, pickles, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Lamb chop or ham. Roast pork.

Sauce for officers: plum, spiced prunes.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING MARCH 17, 1902.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Yuco, sugar, milk, bread. D. Beef stew, dumplings, prune surprise. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Lamb chop. Ham croquettes, blueberry pie.
Tues.	B. Steamed rice, molasses, bread, milk. D. Salt-fish cream, potatoes, parsnips, apple pudding. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Chipped beef. Macaronied beef, tomato.
Wed.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Beefsteak pie, beet pickles, potatoes, tapioca pudding. S. Bread, milk, cheese.	Steak. Vegetable oysters.
Thurs.	B. Vegetable soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, brown bread, chocolate pudding. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Bacon, tripe. Boiled mutton, caper sauce, apple pie.
Fri.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Fish chowder, brown betty. S. Bread, milk.	Salt cod, mackerel. Baked fish, bread pudding.
Sat.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. N.E. boiled dinner, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, raisin loaf.	Steak. Baked rice pudding.
Sun.	B. Tomato bisque, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, pickles, peach surprise. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Oysters, mince pie.

Sauce for officers: Plum, pears, chili sauce.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING APRIL 7, 1902.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Corned-beef hash, buttered parsnips, apple pudding. S. Bread, milk.	Chipped beef. Scalloped eggs.
Tues.	B. Combination soup, bread, milk. D. Beef stew, dumplings, beets, prune surprise. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Steak. Baked sausage, royal cream.
Wed.	B. Indian meal mush, molasses, bread, milk. D. Eggs, carrots, potatoes, blanc-mange. S. Bread, milk, apple sauce.	Ham. Mashed potatoes.
Thurs.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, cold slaw, bread pudding. S. Bread, milk, cheese.	Liver, bacon. Pork chop, tomatoes, apple pie.
Fri.	B. Vegetable soup, bread, milk. D. Fish chowder, prune roll, syrup. S. Bread, milk.	Mackerel or salt cod. Baked fish, fried parsnips.
Sat.	B. Bean soup, bread, milk. D. New England boiled dinner, steamed Indian pudding. S. Bread, milk, raisin loaf.	Bacon, eggs.
Sun.	B. Tomato bisque, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, rice pudding. S. Bread, butter, peach sauce.	Steak. Cold roast lamb, peach pie.

Sauce for officers: plum, apple sauce.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING MAY 19, 1902.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Vegetable soup, apple pudding. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Bacon, eggs. Veal cutlets, apple pie.
Tues.	B. Indian meal mush, molasses, bread, milk. D. Escalloped tomatoes, potatoes, peach surprise. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Canned salmon. Roast beef, corn.
Wed.	B. Steamed rice, sugar, milk, bread. D. Peas purée, rhubarb roll, syrup. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Steak. Curry of veal, rhubarb pie.
Thurs.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Stewed beans, tomatoes, brown betty. S. Bread, milk, cheese.	Ham and eggs. Beefsteak pie.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Fri.	B. Bean soup, bread, milk. D. Baked fish, potatoes, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Pork chops, fish, Tomatoes.
Sat.	B. Fish hash, bread, milk. D. Roast pork, string beans, potatoes, blanc-mange. S. Bread, milk, raisin loaf.	Salt codfish.
Sun.	B. Cereal coffee, bread, butter, milk. D. Baked beans, stewed tomatoes, dates. S. Bread, milk, rhubarb sauce. Sauce for officers: pears.	Roast chicken, apple pie.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING JUNE 17, 1901.

	Regular (Boys).	*For Officers' Use.** *Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Pot roast, rice, steamed pudding. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Ham and eggs.
Tues.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Salt-fish cream, potatoes, Graham pudding. S. Bread, milk, apricot sauce.	Beef. Eggs.
Wed.	B. Bean soup, bread, milk. D. Eggs, mashed potatoes, Indian pudding. S. Bread, milk.	Lamb chop or beef.
Thurs.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, brown bread, Charlotte pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Beef. Eggs.
Fri.	B. Indian meal mush, molasses. D. Fish chowder, tapioca pudding. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Mackerel, bacon, eggs.
Sat.	B. Yuco, sugar, milk. D. Corned beef, vegetables, rice pudding, S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Tripe, ham. Eggs.
Sun.	B. Cereal coffee, bread, butter. D. Baked beans, chocolate pudding. S. Bread, butter, canned cherries.	Beef. Roast lamb.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING JULY 1, 1901.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Vegetable soup, railroad pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Cold boiled ham, prune pie.

* Besides the "Extras" indicated above, officers make weekly requisitions for groceries, canned fruit, etc., to enlarge and vary their own menus. Pies and cakes not noted are also to be had, on requisition, for officers' use.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Tues.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Salt-fish cream, potatoes, apple tapioca. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Steak. Bacon, squash pie.
Wed.	B. Indian meal mush, molasses, bread. D. Baked beans, brown bread, bread pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Ham, eggs, Steak, apple pie.
Thurs.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Fricassee chicken, rice, potatoes. S. Bread, butter, apricots, milk.	Bacon, eggs. Cherry pie, ice-cream without eggs (recipe furnished).
Fri.	B. Steamed rice, sugar, milk, bread. D. Fish chowder, prune pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Tripe, ham. Baked fish, cottage pudding.
Sat.	B. Cracked wheat, sugar, milk, bread. D. Beef stew, dumplings, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk.	Steak. Potatoes, pot roast, apple pie.
Sun.	B. Cereal coffee, bread, butter, milk. D. Cold ham, cornstarch blanc-mange. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Steak. Lobster, currant pie.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING AUG. 26, 1901.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Steamed rice, lettuce, syrup, milk, bread. D. Frankforts, green corn, onions, green apple pudding, syrup. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Bacon, green apple pie.
Tues.	B. Oatmeal, fresh tomatoes, bread, milk. D. Vegetable soup, radishes, blueberry pudding, syrup. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Pork chop. Braised beef.
Wed.	B. Potato soup, sliced cucumbers, green corn, milk. D. Creamed cod, potatoes, beets, apricot and prune pie. S. Oatmeal, cheese, milk.	Steak. Cherry pie.
Thurs.	B. Tomato bisque, corn bread, radishes, milk. D. Pot roast, fresh tomatoes, onions, mashed turnip, rice pudding. S. Brown bread, milk, prune sauce.	Chipped beef.
Fri.	B. Oatmeal, green corn, bread, milk. D. Fish chowder, lettuce, stewed beans, cucumbers, apple tapioca or sago. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Tripe or fresh fish. Baked fish, tapioca pudding.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Sat.	B. Green corn, bread, milk.	Ham.
	D. N.E. boiled dinner, cornstarch pudding.	Cream pie.
	S. Corn-meal mush, molasses, cheese, bread, milk.	
Sun.	B. Stewed tomatoes, bread, milk.	
	D. Baked beans, brown bread, rice pudding.	
	S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING SEPT. 23, 1901.

	Regular.	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Steamed rice, molasses, milk, bread.	Steak.
	D. Beef stew, dumplings, corn, melons.	Pot roast, apple pie.
	S. Bread and milk.	
Tues.	B. Steamed potatoes, gravy, tomatoes, bread, milk.	Liver, bacon.
	D. Frankfort sausage, mashed potatoes, turnips, corn, melons.	Eggs, cottage pudding.
	S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	
Wed.	B. Tomato soup, bread, brown bread, milk.	Hamburg steak.
	D. Creamed fish, potatoes, beets, grapes.	Salt mackerel, cherry pie.
	S. Bread, butter, cheese.	
Thurs.	B. Creamed potatoes, radishes, bread, milk.	Steak.
	D. Stewed beans, creamed corn, tomatoes, plum pudding.	Chicken fricassee.
	S. Bread, butter, milk.	
Fri.	B. Baked potatoes, brown gravy, bread, milk.	Fried fish or ham.
	D. Fish chowder, corn, batter pudding.	Baked fish.
	S. Bread, milk, apple sauce.	
Sat.	B. Stewed tomatoes, bread, milk.	Hamburg steak.
	D. N.E. boiled dinner, boiled rice with raisins.	Baked rice pudding.
	S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	
Sun.	B. Potato soup, bread, milk.	Eggs.
	D. Baked beans, baked Indian pudding.	Oysters, squash pie.
	S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING OCT. 28, 1901.

	Regular (*Boys*).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread.	Pork chop or chipped beef.
	D. Vegetable soup, dumplings, syrup.	
	S. Bread, milk.	Braised beef, apple pie.
Tues.	B. Minute mush, molasses, milk, bread.	Salt cod or mackerel.
	D. Fricassee chicken, potatoes, turnips, celery, blanc-mange.	Rice pudding.
	S. Bread, milk.	

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Wed.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. Salt-cod cream, beets, potatoes, apple pudding. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Bacon or ham. Hamburg steak, mince pie.
Thurs.	B. Creamed potatoes, bread, milk. D. Roast pork, mashed turnip, onions, queen pudding. S. Bread, butter, milk.	Tripe or chipped beef.
Fri.	B. Steamed rice, molasses, bread, milk. D. Fish chowder, prune pudding, syrup. S. Bread, milk, apple sauce.	Cold roast pork or fried fresh fish. Baked fish, apple pie.
Sat.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. N.E. boiled dinner, steamed rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Steak.
Sun.	B. Yuco, sugar, milk. D. Baked beans, tomato pickles, tapioca cream. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Corned-beef hash or cold corned beef. Cold roast pork, Washington pie.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING NOV. 11, 1901.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Vegetable soup, steamed apple pudding, syrup. S. Bread and milk.	Chipped beef. Pot roast.
Tues.	B. Steamed rice, molasses. D. Salt-fish cream, potatoes, cold slaw, brown betty. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Left-over roast. Lamb chop.
Wed.	B. Creamed corn, bread, butter, milk. D. Lamb stew, dumplings, beet pickles, prune pudding. S. Bread, milk.	Steak. Boiled lamb, squash pie.
Thurs.	B. Bean soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, brown bread, cabbage salad, blanc-mange. S. Bread, milk, baked apples.	Ham. Apple pie.
Fri.	B. Steamed potatoes, gravy, bread. D. Fish chowder, pickles, apple pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Salt mackerel or fresh cod. Baked fish.
Sat.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Roast lamb, mashed turnips, onions, potatoes, apple Jonathan. S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Hamburg steak. Bacon.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Sun.	B. Tomato bisque, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, piccalilli, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, prune sauce.	Eggs. Oysters, mince pie.

Extras for officers: peach, plum, cereals upon request.

BILL OF FARE FOR WEEK BEGINNING DEC. 2, 1901.

	Regular (Boys).	*Officers' Extras.*
Mon.	B. Oatmeal, sugar, milk, bread. D. Roast beef, onions, potatoes, tapioca pudding. S. Bread and milk.	Ham.
Tues.	B. Cream of green peas, bread, milk. D. Vegetable soup, cold slaw, Indian pudding. S. Bread, milk, apple sauce.	Steak. Roast lamb, apple pie.
Wed.	B. Bean soup, bread, milk. D. Head cheese, potatoes, peas, cornstarch pudding. S. Bread, milk.	Eggs. Hamburg steak, mince pie.
Thurs.	B. Lentil soup, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, brown bread, hot slaw, brown betty. S. Bread, milk, apricot sauce.	Lamp chops. Steak.
Fri.	B. Indian meal mush, molasses, milk, bread. D. Fish chowder, plum pudding. S. Bread, milk, cheese.	Salt or fresh cod. Baked fish, mock cherry pie.
Sat.	B. Pea soup, bread, milk. D. New England boiled dinner, rice pudding. S. Bread, milk, gingerbread.	Chipped beef or mackerel.
Sun.	B. Creamed corn, bread, milk. D. Baked beans, piccalilli, fruit tapioca. S. Bread, milk, peach sauce.	Steak. Scallops, peach pie.

Extras for officers: peach sauce, apple, corn, beans, cereals upon request.

Tuesday Afternoon, June 1.

The last meeting of the section on juvenile delinquents was held on Tuesday afternoon. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Webb. The following paper was read by the chairman, Superintendent James Allison: —

BUILDINGS FOR REFORMATORIES.

BY JAMES ALLISON.

The consideration of the proper construction of buildings for reformatories is of the greatest importance; for, manifestly, the result of the efforts for the education of inmates must be largely influenced

by the facility with which the children can be classified and the proper segregation effected. And probably no portion of the establishment merits more careful thought than the sleeping apartments where the children must spend about one-third of their time, and under conditions especially favorable to physical and moral contamination.

The question of the comparative merits of open dormitories or separate sleeping-rooms seems to admit of but little discussion. The chief reason favoring the dormitory system is economy of construction and supervision. While it is imperative that those charged with the disbursement of public funds should guard against extravagant or needless expenditure, it is hard to see how the due appreciation of the purpose of a refuge for children, dealing with human souls, fixing their destiny not only for the present, but for future generations, not only for this life, but for that to come, can permit the question of cost to be an important factor in the decision.

For hygienic reasons alone the single room is to be commended. In dormitories the requisite air space is not likely to be secured; and, with the defective bathing facilities of most public institutions, the crowding of children into one room must result in great contamination of the atmosphere, and its resultant, impairment of health and comfort. Further, the separate-room construction, to a degree, guards against overcrowding. Among a large number of children there will be necessarily some who are liable to attacks of illness during the night. In separate rooms such cases cause much less disturbance to others, and can be more readily cared for than in dormitories.

At the age of the children, who constitute a large proportion of the inmates, there exists a feeling of self-respect and modesty which should be carefully cultivated, and by which they may be protected from the evil tendencies engendered by their associations. To compel such children to dress and undress in the presence of others, must lessen this modesty and foster impure thought and action. However watchful the authorities may be, there will be violation of rule; and the open dormitory affords opportunity for cultivation of the passions to a degree much greater than in separate rooms.

As to the pernicious effects of close association, Mr. Tallock, secretary of the English Howard Association, says, "The most effectual and at the same time most merciful and beneficent application of the penal element to prisoners is to secure their absolute separation from each other both by day and night"; and Ferdinand Desportes, general secretary of the Société des Prisons, France, says, "The National Assembly's commission had no difficulty in deciding that certainly promiscuous intercourse is the cause of frightful deterioration among prisoners."

Again Mr. Tallack says, "Nor is it an economical process to make the per cent. cost of inmates a primary matter for regard."

Personally, I am strongly in favor of separate rooms for children above twelve years of age. The subject is now before you for discussion.

DISCUSSION ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF REFORMATORIES.

Mr. C. L. STONAKER, Secretary of the State Board of Charities, Colorado.— I should like to ask if in the cottage system, which is so wisely and earnestly advocated, they include the idea of small dormitories in each cottage, or is each inmate to have a separate room? If the latter is the case, what is the reason for the complete isolation at night?

Mr. NIBECKER.— Why should not boys as well as girls have separate rooms?

Mr. ALLISON.— We have separate rooms for both girls and boys. We have one hundred and fourteen little fellows about eight years of age and the same number of little girls. They are in separate divisions of the house, and they have open dormitories; and we have a night watchman for the boys and a woman for the little girls, but our larger boys occupy separate rooms. The rooms formerly had doors, but we have taken them off and have a night watchman at hand. The girls will not sleep in their rooms without a door, and their doors are locked; and there is a woman who attends to that division of the house. So we have both dormitories and separate rooms.

QUESTION.— Do the girls lock their doors?

Mr. ALLISON.— Yes.

Mr. T. F. CHAPIN, Superintendent Lyman School for Boys, Massachusetts.— I have one cottage in which there is a congregate sleeping hall for twenty or more boys, with three separate rooms that are just like any bedroom. Those three rooms are sought by the boys with the greatest eagerness; and the boys decorate the walls to the ceiling, and take the greatest comfort in them and do all they can to make them beautiful, according to their own ideas. They enjoy being in them, and not only go to them at night to sleep, but go their at times during the day. I believe in an individual room for boys of fourteen and older, provided it has nothing of a cell about it. I do not believe there is any difficulty about having such rooms provided, so far as discipline is concerned. As to open dormitories having night watchmen, I would not have one in one of mine if you would furnish him, and pay me a bonus, besides. Everything that ought not to happen will happen, and a good deal more, with a night watchman there. You can tell more in indirect ways whether things are going on that ought not to than you can tell by the information of a night watchman. You have to take that on my say-so and from my long experience in both schools for delinquents and in boarding-schools for normal children.

Mr. W. G. FAIRBANK, Superintendent Industrial School for Girls,

Conn.— Buildings constructed as homes for our industrial and reform schools should be substantial structures, commodious, convenient, and attractive, yet devoid of costly ornamentation. Quite as much care should be taken to make the interior pleasant, attractive, and homelike as the exterior.

I have noticed a sad defect here in some of the recently built homes that I have visited. The buildings referred to are pleasing and even imposing on the outside, but cold, unpleasant, and forbidding within. Ventilation and all sanitary conditions should receive first attention, and all the sunlight possible should be admitted. It is generally accepted to-day that buildings should be provided of sufficient capacity to receive children — according to the cottage plan — in numbers ranging from fifteen to fifty or even sixty.

These numbers are so large that homes of such numbers are in reality more like a small congregate institution than like the true ideal,— a family home. We all disapprove the old, or congregate, plan; and we disapprove of large families for precisely the same reasons, though we hold that the largest families on the cottage plan are a great advance in the right direction. The homes in the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls have a capacity of from twenty-eight to forty-two girls each. The principal reason urged against the cottage plan has always been the expense. It costs more in salaries for an increased number of family officers. But our classes should be small in numbers, that the individual be more readily reached, developed and reformed. Should we in Connecticut find it necessary to build additional cottages, they will, in all probability, have a capacity to receive not more than twenty-five. We shall then have greater results than now.

The question, Should open dormitories or separate rooms be provided? is worthy of our careful consideration. I know of no reason that can be urged in favor of providing open dormitories save two: That sleeping accommodations can be had at less expense in open dormitories than in separate rooms, and that more careful supervision can be had as a preventive of solitary vice. This is more imaginary than real. I am constrained to say this after an experience with boys of some twenty-three years. I have a firm conviction that the open dormitory as a means for preventing this evil is far less effective than it is conceived to be. Even by placing a guard or watchman by the side of each bed, the evil cannot always be prevented. Other safeguards, other forces, must be brought to bear as preventives, and these, mainly, by wisely directed and discreetly given counsel and instruction. On the other hand, the individual or private room affords the conditions of the natural home, and also such as must be assumed the instant the boy or girl leaves the school. Again, the humanizing effect of having a room all to one's self, and sacred to one's self, not to be trespassed in by another inmate, is excellent. The private room gives opportunity,

such as all need, for certain allowable times for reading, meditation, reflection, and devotion, all essential in habit and education. The care of one's room and all pertaining to it, together with these opportunities, cultivates and develops individuality.

Mr. GEORGE B. ROBINSON, Catholic Protectory, New York.— This is a most serious question, and I take issue with those who advocate separate rooms for each child. After thirty-nine years of experience we would not for a moment undertake to provide separate rooms for all the children above twelve or thirteen. It is true that it would be wise to provide certain rooms for a certain number of children; but that would raise the issue why such a boy should have a separate room and why not another. We have not provided any single rooms because we wanted to put the children on the same basis. In regard to ventilation, I claim that it is impossible with an institution of any size, or even with twenty-five in a cottage, to ventilate twenty-five rooms as well as congregate dormitories are ventilated. Our dormitories have from one hundred and fifty to two hundred children in them; for the larger children not over fifty. But, half an hour after the children are dressed, the air is as sweet as this room, and with a far better movement of air. The windows are large and are thrown open entirely. I should be glad to keep my own room at home as sweet. I hazard nothing in the assertion that it is impossible in a private house to have the ventilation that we have in an open dormitory.

As to supervision in the dormitory. If the children were innocent, that might not be necessary; but the record shows that they are not, and you might as well take things as they are. It does not do to trust to a child's honor when he has been brought up in such a miserable way in the streets of a large city. There should be a watchman in every dormitory, on many accounts as well as a safeguard in case of fire. By proper supervision many a child has been cured of vice. You have to keep your own children under observation. A father or mother who does not do that is making an awful mistake. The father or mother who does not go into the rooms of the children makes a great mistake. Some of the best children develop bad habits. I believe in trusting children, but there is no use in trusting to their honor till they are old enough to know what honor is.

QUESTION.— Is it not possible to construct private rooms as well as open dormitories?

Mr. ROBINSON.— It is possible, but the expense is an item that must be considered.

Mr. FAIRBANK.— I would suggest having the rooms open at the top and with the partitions running only to within six inches of the floor. We have rooms built on that plan.

Mr. ALLISON.— This is an important subject. I am not an advocate of open dormitories for boys, but I consider that it is absolutely necessary to have a guard or a watchman in such dormitories.

Mr. W. C. Ball, Member of Board of Control of Indian Reform School for Boys.— With five or six hundred boys we have ten dormitories, from fifty to sixty in a room. We employ night watchmen, and there is always one officer within view of the rooms. We have other ways of looking into the rooms than through the door. As to ventilation, it seems to me that a room with fifty boys can be better ventilated than small bedrooms. Six months of the year we have perfect ventilation because the windows are all open. In winter it is easy to ventilate a large room by having ventilators along the wall. I often go round the wards at night, when I am visiting the institution; and I have never discovered the lack of ventilation. We have the boys under observation. The night watchman goes into the room. Some boys have to be waked up. Of course, it is cheaper to have one open dormitory than separate rooms. We make a distinction between boys that we have under our control and those on the farm, who have not got into trouble and whose parents are trying to do the best they can. I have known some boys who have gone out from the school to farms, and they found it was much harder getting up in the morning in a cold room and starting fires than it used to be in the school; and they drifted back to us. It is a blunder, almost a crime, to take such care of the bad boys as to curtail the advantages of the boy who has not broken any law.

Mr. Wm. O'Connor, Inspector of Neglected and Dependent Children, Toronto, Canada.— I agree with the last speaker. Some institutions take care of children too well. We have two industrial schools in Toronto, perhaps different from what you have in the states. We have separated on religious lines. One is a Catholic, and one a Protestant school. The Catholic is managed by the Christian Brothers. They have a dormitory system and a watchman at night. The sleeping-rooms of the teachers are contiguous to the dormitories. I have had some experience in placing some of the children from industrial homes, and we cannot hope to get such comfort in private homes as the children enjoyed in the institution. If it were possible in any way to make the condition of the children in the industrial schools approximate more closely to the conditions they are likely to meet out in the world, it would be better for them and better for the school. Boys come back to us who lack ambition, who do not like to get up to start the fire because they have been used to dressing in warm rooms.

Mr. Chapin.— When boys come back because they find the places not so comfortable as in the school, there is a fault somewhere. I can count on the fingers of one hand, or on two thumbs almost, the boys that have come back to us for any such reason. We do not have any warm dormitories. The children sleep in just as cold a room as I slept in when a boy. They do not dress in warm rooms, and they do strip to the waist and wash in cold water summer and winter every morning. My experience has been during these four-

teen years that I have had charge of the school — and we have placed a good many hundreds of boys on farms — that I have never had any come back to the school to seek the comfort of the school. We have tried to feed and clothe them as well as we knew how, but have tried to fill them so full of business that they were quite willing to go out and do something somewhere else. The way to waken a boy's ambition is to get him to do things in the school in such a way that he will want to do something.

In regard to supervision, perhaps my bald statement may be misunderstood. We do not trust boys in the dormitories, nor put them on their honor; but what I do say is that your observer will not catch the boy that wants to be mischievous, and that a good master in a cottage, knowing his boys and sleeping near them, can know better what is going on in the dormitory than any watchman can help him to know. I objected to having peep-holes put in the doors, but I was overruled by my trustees. I despise this secret surveillance. It does not encourage manhood. I will guarantee to catch a boy, if I want to, without any peep-holes. If you are to cure a boy you must do it by some other process than by trying to restrain him. I have been advised to have a man standing in the dormitory, so that there shall be no possible opportunity to practise the secret vice. You cannot prevent it in that way. Suggestion, moral influence, may do it, and a pride in being a strong, manly fellow will do it more than anything else.

QUESTION.— Does this sleeping in a cold room break the boys down?

Mr. CHAPIN.— If a boy is a weakling, it might not be good for him; but the ordinary vigorous boy is not hurt one particle. I had the good fortune to live in Michigan, when a boy, on a farm, and the part of the house where I slept was unfinished; and I have gone down through snow many a time, and it never hurt me a particle. I believe in having them brought up to resist the effects of cold weather. I always furnish them with mittens, but they often go without them.

Mr. E. E. McCASLIN, Superintendent Industrial Home School, Washington, D.C.— Where a girl or boy is reasonably healthy, I think there is nothing more healthful or more helpful in warding off colds than a cold bath before the child dresses. It might well be carried on through the rest of his life. There is a school in Germany where the boys are compelled to plunge into a stream that flows by the school yard. They go in, even when the snow is on the ground, and go singing because they like it.

Mrs. OPHELIA L. AMIGH, Superintendent State Training School for Girls, Geneva, Ill.— I have been wondering why it is impossible to get single rooms well ventilated. In our cottages we have a room for each girl, and the rooms are well ventilated. There is a good-sized window and an open door; and the hall into which it opens

has windows at each end which are raised all the time all winter. We have never had any trouble about ventilating our sleeping rooms for girls, and we have found the separate room the best plan in every way. Our cottages are built for about twenty-three, and we hope to keep them to that number; for we know that much better personal work can be done with a small number. Each cottage has its own dining-room, kitchen, and laundry, and is a family by itself. Each girl learns cooking, sewing, and laundry work, and to live as she would in the family to which she may go. We never have steam heat on at night unless it is ten or fifteen degrees below zero. Our engineer is never up after ten o'clock. We do not want the house too warm. It is not well for the girls. When they go out into farmers' families, they will not always find the conveniences that they have in the institution, though many farmers in Illinois have their houses warm all night. If each one would investigate this subject, he would find it far better for the girls to have each a separate room, even if it costs the state a few dollars more. The cottages are simple, two-story buildings, kept neat and comfortable; and I hope to see the day when this system will be adopted everywhere for so-called reform schools.

QUESTION.— Do you ever have more than one girl in a room?

Mrs. AMIGH.— No.

QUESTION.— How large are your rooms and how far apart are your cottages?

Mrs. AMIGH.— Our cottages are 80 feet north and 80 feet south. If we should put up another, we should put it 80 feet farther off. The rooms are about 7 by 10, which gives room for a wash-stand, table, chair, and very small bed. There is a little wardrobe in each room for clothing, with a shoe-box in the botttom. The cottages are built of brick, with a good basement under the whole building for a play-room.

Dr. ROBERT W. HILL, Inspector State Board of Charities, New York.— This is a very old question. Where the congregate system is well established, it is sometimes not possible to have the cottage system introduced. In New York we have two institutions, each with a capacity of a thousand and we have one with about three thousand. If you divided that number into cottages holding 25 each, you would have a great group of buildings which would make it exceedingly difficult for the superintendent to control. A congregate dormitory gives a chance to keep oversight of all of those who are in it. It is impossible to keep a close watch over boys or girls placed in small cubicles, 7 by 10. Observation is not only necessary to keep them from doing wrong, but to encourage them to do right, to give moral support to overcome the inclination to do wrong. In open dormitories, where teachers have the oversight, there is a recognition of their presence; and a moral stimulus comes from it. The moment that stimulus is withdrawn by separating the children in individual rooms,

some of them, being weak in moral purpose, are apt to go wrong. It is said that these small rooms will be well ventilated because they have a window and a door. My experience in New York has been that it is impossible in a small room to get good ventilation with a window and a door. In the summer that may be so, because the window will be kept open; but in winter the window will be shut every time. It would be necessary to have automatic ventilation, beyond the control of the inmates. In a large dormitory with big windows and ventilating flues, it is possible to have excellent ventilation. I believe that morality is developed by cleanliness as well as by education and good discipline, and into this cleanliness good ventilation enters and is most important. We are told of a school where boys are compelled to enter a stream every morning, but it is impossible in every institution to get a stream of running water. The day of the trough has gone by, and now the rain or shower or spray bath is easily possible; and I believe the use of such a bath will go far toward developing firmness of mind as well as firmness and strength of body. The attempt to substitute for such a bath any of the old-time makeshifts ought to be checked. But, after all, under forceful teachers and attendants, with a competent superintendent, you will find that, whether in the open dormitory or in the cottage system, there will be good results to the state from the work undertaken in behalf of delinquents.

Mr. FREDERICK ALMY, Secretary Buffalo Charitable Organization Society.— It is not my understanding that the state is in favor of congregate dormitories. There are in New York three state reformatories for women and girls; and I think at all three each inmate has a separate room, and they are far from being cells. I know that at the one in Albion each girl has a room to herself. My belief would be that the boys should also have separate rooms.

Mrs. ISABEL C. BARROWS.— From a recent visit to both the Hudson and Bedford reformatories I may add that in each of them a separate room, tidy, cheerful, and simply furnished with table, bed, and chair, is given to each girl or woman.

Mrs. F. F. MORSE, Superintendent State Industrial School for Girls, Lancaster, Mass.— This is a subject of deep interest. I believe in the cottage system, with a single room for each girl. There is no room large enough for two girls. In our cottages the arrangement is such that three halls branch off from a central hall. The halls are sixty or seventy feet long, in wings, and at the end of each a good large door for ventilation, so that air circulates freely through the halls. Each room opening off from the hall has a good-sized window and a large ventilator over the door, and the ventilation seems to be excellent. Our girls take great pride in their rooms and in keeping them in excellent order. Their decorations are pasted on to the wall with soap that can readily be washed off. They can have just as strict oversight in the cottage system under the direct care of a competent matron, who knows each girl, as by a superintendent who has the

entire charge of a large dormitory. The matron must be a competent house-mother; and, if so, she can make up any lack that might otherwise result from the inability of the superintendent to have supervision.

Mr. FAIRBANK.— In the last house we built we placed a ventilator in each room, and there is ventilation under each door and over the door also. If there were any necessity, there could be a standpipe to draw from each room.

Mr. B. PICKMAN MANN, Agent Board of Children's Guardians, Washington, D.C.— A standpipe in the room, with a stove-pipe or a steam-pipe inside and the ventilator opening both at the floor and the ceiling, would answer. I know of a room where a stove-pipe enters a brick chimney, and runs through it,— a chimney of twenty inches; and it ventilates the room capable of holding fifty people at all times. In Rio Janeiro the hotels have large halls cut up into small rooms, a few feet square, all open at the top. Yon can hear every one talking, but you have perfect ventilation

Mrs. A. M. EDWARDS, Nebraska.— In the Industrial Home of Nebraska we have not the one-room system; I wish we had. We have rooms which two occupy, sometimes four, others five. Where we put two in a room, we try to put a girl who may be known as a bad girl with one of the best girls. We try to make our institution a home. The girls remain with us one year, and take an industrial training. Each one must serve five weeks in each department, and for one week each girl is head girl in her own department, and there is much rivalry as to whose week shall be best. We have school from 2.30 till 5 daily, and chapel service every evening from 7.30 to 8. We have a farm, keep our own cows and poultry. We have 48 girls.

QUESTION.— Do you allow them meat?

Mrs. EDWARDS.— Twice a day.

QUESTION.— Do they sleep in single beds?

Mrs. EDWARDS.— Yes.

A MEMBER.— As the cottage plan is substituted for the congregate, is it found possible to allow the children to converse at meal times?

Mr. F. H. NIBECKER, House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa.— Certainly it is.

Mrs. FAIRBANK.— We have one cottage where the girls stay for a time before they go out, and where they have more privileges. They have electric lights, and do not retire till half-past nine. The officers eat with the girls, and they converse together. In the other cottages they are not allowed to talk, except as they want something. We have a matron in charge to see after them, that they eat properly and that their conduct is right.

Mr. NIBECKER.— I began the method fifteen years ago. When I came to Philadelphia and took the school, and organized it in the

country, I told the boys that they should be allowed to talk quietly with their neighbors — not across the table, of course — instead of sitting like numskulls. Some of the old employees were rather shocked; but one of our most thoughtful and progressive managers happened to be up a day or two afterward, and he told me that they had talked this over and thought it would be subversive of discipline. But it has been going on in all the cottages ever since. There is no difficulty about it.

Mr. Allison thanked the section for its co-operation, and introduced the newly elected chairman for the Committee on Juvenile Delinquents, Mr. T. F. Chapin, of Massachusetts.

Adjourned at 4 P.M.

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 31.

The Conference was called to order at 9.15 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by the Rev. A. H. Barr, of the Jefferson Avenue Presbyterian Church. The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on Neighborhood and Civic Improvements, Mr. Robert W. de Forest, New York, chairman, who presided during the session.

Mr. ROBERT HUNTER, Head-worker in the New York University Settlement.— I have been really enjoying myself very much in listening to Mr. de Forest. What he said is quite true in regard to my paper; but I was not intending the discussion of the relation between charity organization society and settlements, but to show the history of preventive work in the charity organization society. We know that in all charity organization work there have been for many years important philanthropies that might be called preventive. We know that the social settlements years ago did many things in the way of housing reforms, and that the recent housing reform of the Charity Organization Society of New York was by no means an initial movement of that kind; and I did not mean to imply that. I said distinctly that the Tenement-house Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society was the most important advance which the Charity Organization Society has made in recent years in the way of preventive work.

Mr. Hunter then read a paper on "Housing Reform in Chicago" (page 343).

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln spoke on "Housing Reform in Boston" (page 355).

A paper on the "Housing Problem in Smaller Cities" was read by Mr. A. W. Gutridge, general secretary of the Associated Charities of St. Paul (page 290).

DISCUSSION ON NEIGHBORHOOD AND CIVIC IMPROVEMENTS.

In opening the general discussion, the chairman asked Mr. Gutridge to speak of the public baths of St. Paul.

Mr. GUTRIDGE.— Dr. Justus Ohage, the health commissioner, founded the public bath system of St. Paul. Four years ago he bought with his private means an island of about forty acres which lay in the Mississippi River, near the centre of the city. He offered the property as a gift to the city, if the citizens would erect bath-houses upon it and the public maintain them. As his offer was not accepted, Dr. Ohage went ahead and built the bath-houses himself. After he had proved the need, the city accepted the proposition, however; and the property is now worth over $100,000. The baths are patronized by men and women of all classes. About 70 per cent. of the number taken are wholly free. A fee of five cents is charged for special accommodations. Everything is kept in the most scrupulous sanitary condition. The first year about 240,000 baths were taken. Each year the number has increased, so that additional accommodations for women and girls were found necessary this year. The island has been laid out as a park with attractive picnic grounds, refreshment stands, and a finely equipped playground with a physical director in charge. Since the opening of the baths, the atmosphere of a congested section of the city has changed; and the awakened desire for cleanliness, and that which accompanies it, is shown in the increased patronage of private baths in the city and at the lake resorts.

General R. BRINKERHOFF.— If we go into our smaller cities, we find a great many that are not attractive. They do not give to the people that upward lift that a beautiful city does give. In my own city of Mansfield we have a beautiful park; and since that was opened sixteen years ago the people, instead of going off on Sunday excursions, walk through this park,— men, women, and children,— and it is delightful. From the early summer till fall, people are picnicking there. From having a fine park the people came to desire to have the whole city beautiful, with clean streets and houses. We are not going to have the streets littered with paper and tin cans. The ladies have set to work, and they have formed an organization to study these matters and to carry out improvements. School-houses and grounds are to be beautified; and the children are to be interested, as

they already are in Cleveland, where a hundred thousand have asked for flower seeds for beautifying the home.

Mrs. SARAH M. PERKINS, Cleveland, Ohio.— It is innate in women to be good housekeepers and to make attractive homes, and they certainly can help in this great work of improving the tenement and in insisting on that cleanliness which is akin to godliness.

Mr. FRANK TUCKER, New York.— In the recent tenement-house movement in New York we learned certain lessons, one of which was that, to secure results in social reform, there must be unity of action. I shall never forget when in the chamber of the Senate committee on cities at Albany the chairman of this meeting, Mr. de Forest, asked those in favor of the tenement-house bill to rise, and that body of more than one hundred stood,— priests, clergymen, lawyers, doctors, business men, architects, charity workers, settlement workers,— all were there; and from that moment there was never any doubt about the fate of that bill because public opinion stood for it. If you cannot get together on any other basis in your social work, start on your housing problem.

There was another lesson. Mr. Hunter's statement of Mr. Veillier's plan is true. It was broad, comprehensive, far-seeing; but, before that plan went before the public, it was discussed, it was revised, it was pruned, it was amended, by the representative committee of volunteer citizens. And when, after the plan was put before the public, we wanted the higher qualities of generalship, when we wanted social standing, professional ability, diplomacy, judgment, and all those high qualities, we found them in you, Mr. Chairman. We learned how the professional worker and the volunteer could get together to accomplish great results.

Miss JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.— It is very discouraging for us of the South to hear what great things you are doing; yet, when we learn about the condition of your tenement houses, we cannot help feeling that a Southern negro in the poorest one-room cabin, with God's light and air all around it, is better off than the city dweller in the two or three rooms of a slum tenement house. Alabama has very few cities, but a great many small towns. The greatest obstacle to the elevation of the negroes is the way in which they live in one-room cabins without windows. I had a window put into a little house, but I was discouraged in trying to rent it. The negroes would say, "I don like dat great big window: it look just like livin' outdoors,— lettin' in all dat light." One at last took the house in which I had taken the trouble to put the large glass window; but she took a thick quilt and tacked it all over the window, making the room as dark as before. I was discouraged at first, but I think they are gradually getting over this surviving instinct of the primitive cave-dweller. Another discouragement, however, is that they are so unthrifty. If a circus comes to town, they come in from miles around till the streets are so crowded that one could almost

walk on top of their heads; and, though they have no money for anything else, that circus will take away hundreds of dollars. If we had postal savings-banks, I think we could induce them to save this money; but they do not know what to do with the little money they have. Only some institution which will take care of their pennies can teach them to save these. No negro can resist a circus or an excursion. Out of our population of 33,000 in my county, 24,000 are negroes. Until they have learned to save their earnings, they cannot build homes or beautify their surroundings. Yet in our county a negro could buy a lot for fifty dollars, and build a comfortable house on it for $300. I believe the establishment of a savings-bank at every post-office, with the whole United States government's support behind it, would do more to uplift the negro population than any other measure. There are no savings-banks in our small towns; and, if there were, it would be hard to get the negroes to patronize them. But they have great faith in Uncle Sam, and would soon learn to patronize any institution under his special care.

Miss JULIA C. LATHROP, Chicago.— The question of the cleanliness and order and safety and pleasantness of the street is the great material,— indeed, one may easily add the great moral question of a town; and the question of the playground is an essential part of it. It would be scarcely possible to exaggerate the need of playgrounds and small parks in the crowded inner circle of all great towns, yet they are in themselves enlargements and elaborations of the street. They are reached by streets. Like the streets, they are public ground, free to every comer. On the other hand, they are not in the utilitarian sense essential to the comings and goings and daily life of a population. The streets are. The child toddles on the street long before he is strong enough to walk to the nearest playground. In a quarter where nurse-maids and perambulators are unknown and where all the work of a household is performed by the same pair of hands which tend and fetch and carry the children of the family, the playground, even if comparatively near at hand, is for tiny children at best the occasional luxury of a "day off." The children must be on the street. In summer, after work and after supper, when people are too tired to stir and it is too hot to go to bed (a condition familiar to those of all degrees of income, I take it), where shall people in a tenement district sit with their little children, who are always lively, save in the street in front of their own living place? I asked a rich woman just now where her children trundled their hoops and played, and she said, "In front of the house, of course"; and that is where all little children are going to play some part of every day, even after we have all the playgrounds and parks we ought to have. We have the old tradition of the viciousness and danger of the street. The street child is a synonym for neglect. We mean the poor street and the poor child. Now the street is the most interest-

ing place in the world. Everything goes by, everything happens there. There is always the zest of the unexpected. It is more entertaining than the park, as motion is more interesting than repose. Processions go up and down the street. They only disband in the park. The street ought to be as good as it is interesting. When one thinks of the poor districts of Paris, one thinks of the great boulevards driven through them, so ruthlessly from the antiquarian's point of view, but so courageously in the view of a city sanitarian. Those boulevards adorned with great trees under which old women knit and little children play do not suggest perhaps their exact imitation here, but they do suggest an attention to the streets of tenement districts which should begin with cleanliness and trees.

The street is inevitable, it is legitimate, it is alluring. We can do much to make it wholesome and sweet and orderly.

Mrs. LINCOLN.— Tenement houses might be built round playgrounds.

Mrs. KINNEY, Michigan.— The people to-day who live in these wretched tenement houses are not willing to go into the country. A few years ago I had two farms of 80 acres each, offered me by a wealthy young man for two poor families to live upon. He was ready to give deeds of them. There were many poor people in the town where I was living, but I could find no one who would accept the offer.

Mr. DEVINE.— Three of the most successful and active workers from Boston who have spoken here have said they have been engaged in charitable work twenty-two years. It might be interesting to know what happened in 1880 that started so many good things.

Adjourned at 11.45 A.M.

SECTION MEETING.

NEIGHBORHOOD AND CIVIC IMPROVEMENTS.

Friday, May 30, 4 P.M.

The section was called to order at 4 P.M., Mr. Robert de Forest in the chair.

Mr. DE FOREST.— I reached Detroit this morning, and one of the first things I noticed was a sign on one of the electric cars reading "To the Wild Flowers." I had never seen a sign like that on a car; and I welcomed it, not for the sake of the wild flowers, but for the sake of the people who are encouraged not only to go out into the small parks, but into the country where the wild flowers really grow. It may be necessary by and by to organize a society for the

protection of wild flowers, as they have in Switzerland; but here there are plenty yet, and we can well welcome any means of bringing the children of the city into that companionship. It is an appropriate keynote to the sectional meeting of this committee.

There is an historic incident of which I may speak at the opening of this meeting, which has for its main subject the establishment of parks and playgrounds. It is an incident connected with the development of charitable work in New York City.

More than fifty years ago the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor, which has had many imitators, was established in New York City, chiefly through the influence of a very far-seeing man, who at that time was easily leading philanthropist of that city, Richard M. Hartley. New York owes much to Mr. Hartley's inspiration. Being what he was, and being as broad-minded and far-sighted as he was, it was extremely interesting to me to read one of the important reports which he made on the subject of overcrowding in New York, and to note his attitude toward public parks. It was at the time when Central Park was being planned,—a park which then was not "central," though it has since become so. I do not suppose there is a single intelligent person now who is not an advocate of the establishment of parks in general, and of this park in particular, which is the only bit of nature easily accessible to the dense tenement districts of New York. Nor do I suppose for a moment that Mr. Hartley, were he now with us, would be of a contrary opinion. But he was of a contrary opinion then, and, strangely enough, for the sake of the tenement dwellers he was seeking to aid. This is the part of the report to which I refer.

Here we have the foremost citizen on charitable lines in New York, at that time, protesting against the establishment of parks such as which we without exception are urging. It is quite evident that, if Mr. Hartley and the charitable people of New York had directed municipal policy at that time, we should not have had even the parks we now possess.

Miss ELLEN H. BAILEY, Boston, Mass.—I have just come from the section meeting on Juvenile Delinquents, the children that get into our institutions; and it seemed to be the general opinion of that section that these children are the product of the homes from which they come, the tenement houses such as exist in our large cities. Any one who is familiar with tenement-house life in New York or Boston or London can be sure that that kind of life has a great tendency toward evil in the children. The dark, ill-ventilated, unsanitary buildings in which families are housed together are evidence enough that the children who come from those homes must of necessity learn a great many things that are unmoral and immoral, and that they will drift into institutions and homes and asylums which take such children. Those of us who know these things can but welcome the efforts being made for the improved housing of the

poor. We are glad to see that men and women of money and influence, either as individuals or in combination as corporate bodies, have started a reform in the building of tenements, and that the best architects have been put at work upon this question in New York, so that that city has now some of the finest and fairest tenements that can be found in the United States, at a low rental in fairly good neighborhoods, which will meet the demands of the laboring man who ought not to pay more than one-fifth of his income for his house rent. For that he ought to get well-ventilated, sanitary, and not overcrowded tenements. More than that, the tenement-house block or neighborhood ought to be free from evil influences which tend so much toward the destruction of the children. Here comes in the management of those improved homes. Miss Octavia Hill, of London, showed very clearly, more than thirty years ago, that an immense amount can be accomplished by putting old tenements in good repair, and by putting them and new ones under the direction of ladies well trained in business methods, who are at the same time interested in the welfare of their tenants, and who will interest themselves in their families. If the ladies chosen for the work of managing tenements are wise and just, they will also work for the advantage of the landlords as well as for the welfare of the tenants. The Co-operative Building Society of Boston has several blocks of houses managed by ladies; and the buildings have a very different character from other tenements in the same neighborhood, as the workingmen who live in them will tell you. Many men and women might be induced to invest money in this sort of work on a business basis. It is not philanthropic. We do not ask that rent should be given to poor people, only that decent homes should be provided for those who must live in tenement houses. If we could tear down the old rookeries in Boston and New York and build fair tenements, it would be a good business investment; and the result would be a diminishing of poverty and crime to those neighborhoods.

Mr. DE FOREST.— I heard a gentleman from Maine remark that they could not get co-operation there with the Roman Catholics. So far as New York is concerned, we have long since ceased to find that there is any dividing line between Catholics and Protestants; and we are all working together. I will ask the Rev. Dr. McMahon, of New York, to speak on the subject of this meeting.

Rev. D. J. MCMAHON.— I should like to call your attention to the superhuman work of the chairman of this meeting when he was chairman of the Tenement-house Commission of New York. If there is co-operation between the Catholics and Protestants there, it is owing to men like Mr. de Forest and men of a similar character who have bridged over the gulf of our Mont Pelées.

I am a product of the tenement house. I have lived there all my life, and I did not see and do not now see in the old tenement houses the faults that are spoken of so much as the result of the tene-

ments of to day. One reason is, not that the people were any better then than those living to-day in tenement houses, but that the environment was very much better, both the civic and the neighborhood environment. When I was a child of the tenement in the district where I am now a pastor, we had plenty of vacant lots in which to play; and it was on that account that Mr. Hartley spoke of the impracticability of little parks. We did not plant potatoes nor raise beets; but we had plenty of playground, and we did not need the parks. I think parks are necessary, but I think even more necessary are playgrounds for the children. The parks are necessary for the mothers for places of rest after they have done their cooking and other daily duties; but for the children, who constitute so large a majority of those who would use either park or playground, surely the playground will be of more use. We have just been told in another section meeting that there is very little distinction between the dependent and the delinquent child, that the delinquent child is ninety-nine times out of a hundred only the one that is caught. The others commit the same little offences. But there will be a great distinction as the child grows up unless we give it a chance to develop what is in it. The child has one hundred and sixty-eight hours in the week out of which it can get about thirty for play, but where can it play to-day in New York? For the last few years we have had asphalt pavements, and they do get some little chance to play on the streets, if they can hide from the "cop"; but they always have to have some one on watch for him. Boston has got ahead of us in this, because the boys in a block have an insurance company; and, when they break a pane of glass, the insurance company pays for it. They have advanced in Boston, as they always do advance there. But in New York we do need playgrounds. I was in Albany, and heard Mr. de Forest make his passionate appeal before the governor, asking him to sign the bill that the Tenement-house Commission had prepared. Coming down on the train were several of the builders who had tried with all the energies of their souls to beat us down, and I said to one of them, "Why can't you build as they did in old times, with plenty of playground in the back yards?" "Oh," he said, "property is too high. The city ought to supply those things." The efforts now being made will reach the results that we desire only when we have a determined, strong, and persevering attempt to bring those results about by systematic demands and continued agitation. We must have these playgrounds for the moral and intellectual as well as physical development of the children; but we cannot have them without gifts from wealthy people and with the aid of the city, and we can get these only by continued and persevering agitation.

Mrs. ANDERSON, Detroit.—I am an old reporter, and for fifteen years did all kinds of newspaper work; and I will tell you what one small park did for one small boy. Among my assignments was one

to write up the Arab settlement on Franklin Street, which corresponds to some of the slums in Chicago. Among the picturesque Arabs there, I stumbled upon a little fellow eight years old; and in our conversation it developed that, though he lived in a city of parks, his one idea of a park was a little patch of grass — like a pocket-handkerchief — that grew in front of a house on that street. He did not know anything about Grand Circus or Belle Isle, though he lived in a quarter from which the children are taken over there at least once a year. Some way the mission societies had omitted him. Being a busy reporter, I could not take him to any beautiful back yard where he could play, nor to Belle Isle, but I could bring him up to Grand Circus Park; and one day, when I ought to have been writing up society notes, I took two hours off, and brought him up to that park. It would be impossible to put into words the effect of it. I had supplied myself with a small piece of soap and some pocket-handkerchiefs, and I showed him how to take advantage of the waters of the fountains; and he was brighter-looking than ever after the experiment. After two hours I took the little fellow home, and I followed him up for several months. His teacher told me that his constant talk to her and to his fellow-scholars was of a park, a beautiful park, and that he was always bringing to school little blades of grass that managed to find their way up through that arid pavement; and his mother told me that he always insisted on washing himself before he went to school, to see if the water felt as good as it did in the park.

Mr. M. M. SOUTHWORTH, Ohio.— I represent a county home with a capacity for 160 children. To-day we have 135. We have parks for our children and plenty of nice fresh air. Children come to us with pallid faces and sunken eyes, and in ten days you can notice a difference in them and in their entire expression. It is a detriment to a child physically and mentally not to have such outdoor privileges.

Rev. S. J. BARROWS, New York.— In New York City we have 355 miles of water front; and, if one cannot play on the land, he might on the water. When I was a little boy in New York City, there was plenty of water to play in; but the chief duty of the police seemed to be to keep us from getting into it. Some years later, when I was trying to cross the Yellowstone River, 500 yards wide, I was much embarrassed because I did not know how to swim; and I had to go to Germany, where they have plenty of swimming schools and baths, to learn how. The boys in New York have better opportunities in that direction now; and I wish Mr. Tucker, who has done such splendid work for his Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, would tell us about the public baths of New York.

Mr. FRANK TUCKER, New York.— The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor has always been distinguished for its will-

ingness to admit its mistakes. Perhaps Mr. Hartley did make a mistake sixty years ago, but the conditions were very different then; and, again, perhaps he was wiser than we are willing to admit. It might have been better for this generation if territory equal to that now covered by Central Park had been distributed through the city for playgrounds, even if there were not now a blade of grass or a tree upon one of them.

We made a mistake in our first public bath. In 1852 the Association, alive to the great social problems of the day, became aware of the disadvantages of tenement-house life in the city of New York, particularly the lack of facilities for bathing and washing; and in furtherance of their views the association spent $42,000 in constructing a public bath and wash-house on Mott Street. At the same time the association made another mistake; it built the first model tenement, which turned out to be anything but a model tenement. However, we improved by experience. The bath-house was in advance of the times, and after ten years it was sold. Afterward, through suggestion and influence of Dr. Simon Baruch, the matter of public baths was agitated again, and the City Mission and Tract Society took up the subject, and some money was contributed to build one: that society turned over to us the money contributed, and also gave the use of a piece of ground; and in 1891 we opened a public bath which cost $28,000 and which contained twenty-six bathing compartments. We have kept full statistics of the enterprise, and it is interesting to note that the number of baths taken has more than doubled in the ten years it has been in existence. We have had as many as 130,000 baths taken in one year, and as many as 1,200 in one day. When Mayor Strong was elected, we took up the subject of public baths and small playgrounds as municipal activities; and, in furtherance of our suggestion, the mayor appointed two commissions to make investigations and reports.

QUESTION.— Are the baths free?

MR. TUCKER.— Our bath, called the People's Baths, is free for the baths; but five cents is charged for soap and towel. The city's bath, known as the Rivington Street Bath, is entirely free; but soap and towel are not furnished.

QUESTION.— Do you use a pool or individual baths?

MR. TUCKER.— Individual spray baths. The pool for a public bath has been condemned as unsanitary by medical authorities and by actual experience. It seems to be successful in cities abroad, but not here. We have now reached the condition in New York where public baths are regarded as a municipal function. A special bureau has been created to establish and maintain them. Appropriations have been made to build five new ones, three in the borough of Manhattan and two in the borough of Brooklyn. It is believed that within a few years New York will have at least twenty such all-the-year-round baths.

Mr. FREDERIC ALMY, Buffalo.— We have two good municipal baths in Buffalo, and also excellent tenement-house legislation passed many years ago. I wish to speak especially of the power possessed by *individuals* for civic improvement. Our Charity Organization Society had a committee on the subject of municipal playgrounds; and the committee got Mayor Quincy, of Boston, and Mayor Jones, of Toledo, to come and speak on that subject. A young man, Melvin P. Porter, of Buffalo, not at first on this committee, who had organized a playground the previous year in a public school yard, was keenly interested in the subject of municipal playgrounds. The common council was unwilling to appropriate money last year on account of the extraordinary expenses of the Pan-American Exposition; but Mr. Porter brought so much public opinion to bear that he got a municipal play ground on city land, with a $3,000 appropriation for equipment and maintenance. This year he was advised to be satisfied with two municipal playgrounds; but, by an immense amount of hard work, he got four, all on city land, in the Italian, Irish, German, and Polish sections respectively. The result was almost wholly due to his individual effort in arousing public opinion. He showed real bull-dog grit and tenacity.

Another individual in Buffalo, Dr. Pryor, has done great work in the matter of tenement houses and the prevention of consumption. I have something new to report also in our Fresh Air Mission work. Besides an extensive fresh air mission hospital, we have had for many years a farm on the lake shore, which with the dormitories cost $15,000, and accommodates 150 children. As the Fresh Air Mission children are of school age, these domitories are used only during July and August, when the public schools are closed. For the last two years we have invited the children of the Buffalo orphan asylums to make use of the dormitories without charge, in June and September. They take their own matrons and servants; but the use of the premises, with bedding, china, etc., is given, so that the outing costs them only their railroad fare. We find that even the street children from destitute families do not enjoy their fortnight at Cradle Beach so much as these orphan asylum children, who have colorless, unchanging lives, and who are not apt to become homesick in the country, because their associations are unchanged.

Mr. HENRY C. WRIGHT, Superintendent Cincinnati, Ohio, Union Bethel.— Last summer the institution with which I am connected wanted to start a little fresh air work for the children in one of the worst districts of the city. We had not the money; but we cooperated with a newspaper, and, as a result, 1,390 children were sent into the country for two weeks. The people entertained them gratis. This year two thousand children have been invited. Municipal baths we have not undertaken in Cincinnati. Last year our institution undertook to fill this need. We put in ten shower baths and a Turkish

bath, all of marble and the latest apparatus. The first month the baths were entirely free, and 2,400 were taken. The 1st of September we began charging 5 cents for soap and towel, and that has been kept up. The number is increasing gradually. Two weeks ago, on Saturday, there were 230 baths taken in the afternoon, the full capacity, at twenty minutes each. As to the Turkish bath, I believe it is the only one in the country that is free to sick people. There is a charge of 25 cents for those who can pay. We issue a ticket, which is put into the hands of physicians; and, when it is signed by them, it entitles the person to a bath. The bath will probably be self supporting within two years. It is run with a minimum of expense, the only cost being a bath attendant, heat, light, laundry, and soap.

Mr. VAN WAGENEN, Orange, N.J.— We have a bath committee which has now a public bath in process of erection. There are hundreds of young boys and girls, men and women, who are employed by day who have no means of recreation. Their hours are long, and at night they may be found on the street corners and in the saloons and at the railway stations wandering about. The question is, How can a gymnasium, a place of recreation, and clubs for them be organized and maintained? These people are independent. They do not want any patronizing, and they do not want us to meddle with their affairs; but it is very evident they would be glad to have such a place Shall we try to get some of these people to come into it as stockholders to the extent of their abilities? Shall we get churches and wealthy people to present it to them?

A MEMBER.— If the gentleman will apply to the New York League for Social Service, he may get some of the suggestions he is asking for.

Mr. J. M. HANSON, Secretary Associated Charities, Kansas City, Mo.— The motto of Kansas City is, "Make Kansas City a good place to live in"; and the people now are really setting out to make it a good place to live in. They have marked out a fine system of parks and boulevards. Large districts are being condemned and cleared out. In connection with one of the parks there is to be an immense playground and athletic field, which will be equipped as an outdoor gymnasium. Upon this there is now a public bath, paid for by private subscription, with a charge of 5 cents for towel and soap, which has fully paid the expenses during the year. There is now an effort to secure another bath. There are to be three playgrounds this summer, with competent supervision, one with a temporary shower bath. It is to be made in sections, so that in winter it can be taken down and stored. It is to be built as a lean-to, to a building which the school board rents for a kindergarten. One room will be a dressing-room. Two attendants will be in charge of this during the summer. Three days in the week will be for girls and three for boys.

We have given some attention to housing conditions in the city.

We have a tenement-house problem there, not beginning to correspond, however, with larger cities, but large enough. We concluded that all tenements to be constructed hereafter should be models. Our work lies in the direction of securing control of the worst buildings, and putting them in the hands of lady rent collectors. We have secured leases of 124 old houses, some of the worst in the city, and for a year have had the experience of combining rent collecting and friendly visiting; and we find it is an admirable plan in that it enables the rent collector to be thoroughly acquainted with the family and their economic condition, and can thus be a friend to them and give them intelligent direction. In connection with this we have been developing a social settlement in the district in which the houses are located, which is a great help to us. I have been asked whether people do not try to take advantage of the friendly relation between tenants and rent collectors, and try to escape paying rent. No, because of the friendly relations the people feel under obligations to us, and exert themselves even more to keep the rents up; and we are getting more money than the property ever yielded before, and the whole neighborhood testifies to the improvement. We do not raise the rent, but our collections are better. We have taken a lease on these houses for a period of five years.

Mr. TUCKER.— This is one of the most interesting experiments we have heard of in this Conference. It is very direct and practical. The same proposition was made to us in New York, and, after grave consideration, we found the greatest difficulties facing us; and, if Mr. Hanson has conquered them, it is going to be of immense value. He makes the lease, and becomes responsible. What is the total amount for which the individual or association is responsible?

Mr. HANSON.— No one gives it any very *solid financial* backing, because I am the backer myself!

QUESTION.— Then you make the leases with the owner?

Mr. HANSON.— Yes, or with the agent of the estate. We pay $400 a month for the entire property, and make our own repairs, and pay a water bill of $40 a month. We rent them for $6.50 a month, and do not allow any subletting,— one family to a house. I think it will be possible to get a great many houses in the same way. These houses are in the most densely populated part of the city, between Grand Avenue and McGee and Eighteenth and Twentieth Streets. They were built by an individual fifteen years ago, and are very poorly constructed. They are contiguous. Two rows of them face an alley. Each house consists of three rooms in a row, the middle room being lighted by a skylight. They are one-story houses. The end rooms are 12 x 14, and the middle room 12 x 12. As soon as a tenant moves out, we repaper, kalsomine, and paint; and we try to keep them up by securing the co-operation of the tenant.

QUESTION.— Have you had to dispossess any?

Mr. HANSON.— We have done it in three cases for intemperance.

QUESTION.— What do you do if there is such destitution that they cannot pay the rent?

Mr. HANSON.— We have had rent paid by the Provident Association in three cases. We have several widows struggling to do all they can for whom we have remitted some rent. The Provident Association is as ready to pay rent there as anywhere in the city.

QUESTION.— Is it a paying investment?

Mr. HANSON.—We have not aimed to make it such. It has been self-supporting; and it has kept an ice-water barrel all summer on the street, and has done a good deal of educational work, and helped to sustain the social settlement that is in connection with these houses.

The chairman called on Mr. William Hard, head resident of the North-western University Settlement of Chicago, to speak on small parks.

Mr. HARD.— When the city was small, there was space enough; and it was always possible to find room on the prairie. When the city began to grow closer together and the buildings began to crowd each other, there came a systematic movement toward establishing small parks and playgrounds. Each of the three sections of the city has now a park system of its own. Unfortunately, the management of those systems is in the hands of the state government at Springfield. With small parks and playgrounds the case is different. The municipality itself has opened six playgrounds, and has appointed a special small parks and playgrounds commission. This commission has presented the State Park Boards of Chicago with the amplest statistical information in regard to the distribution of population in the different parts of the city. In order to make the work effective, it was necessary to obtain permission from the legislature to issue bonds. The division of authority and responsibility between the state legislature and the city council is a thing to be deplored. Only by the hardest kind of work has it been possible to bring about the present state of affairs and to put through the plans which now seem likely to result in the opening of a sufficient number of park areas. The City Homes Association and the special Park Commission have done active and faithful service.

Mr. TUCKER.— Tell us something about public baths.

Mr. HARD.— The municipal baths number four. The attendance is very large. The statistics are published monthly. Great crowds frequent the baths, especially in summer. Chicago has too little use of its lake front. Last year Mr. H. E. Weaver saw that a bathing beach was opened up for the people, and this year there are to be at least five municipal bathing beaches. The trouble in connection

with them is that the poorer part of the town is on the west side and so far from the beaches that it will be difficult for children to use them. Last year there were two petitions, so large that they were brought in wheelbarrows to the city hall, asking for a natatorium in one of the parks; but the park board could do nothing about it. Of course, the people who pay for these things are the people of Chicago; but the jurisdiction over the larger parks lies with the state.

Dr. EMMA C. HACKETT, Chicago.— No one has mentioned how we are going to obtain the help of the children about the playgrounds. In the Hull House district we made an effort to have help from the children. A year ago it occurred to the members of the Municipal Art League that it would be well to try what could be done to beautify one of the worst streets by planting trees and shrubs and flowers. Miss Howe, the kindergartner, called the children together and told them what had been done in other places, and suggested that they should try to protect these growing things. One boy said, "Let's form a club"; and a club was formed,— the Clean City Club of the Nineteenth Ward boys and girls. The shield bears a twig, to remind the children that they are not to destroy branches or twigs. Each child who wears the badge promises that he will pick up at least one piece of paper a day, and that he will never throw any refuse on the street, and that he will protect all growing things. We have a membership of 400 in the neighborhood. There are a great many branches all through the city. We meet every week, and have something interesting going on. Mr. Hooker came once, and told them why the neighborhood was desirable as a residence, and that they had an opportunity to make it beautiful. That pleased the children. Another time some one came and told of the different ways of paving. This was helpful, and they take what they learn home with them. Incidentally, they also teach us. I talked to them one day about germs, and clinched my lesson by telling of the germs of tuberculosis that may be carelessly scattered over the pavement by people spitting on the street, and asked who would be to blame if I should bring such germs into the school-room. Some said, "The man who spat on the street"; but one boy said, "It would be your fault because your dress is too long."

Rev. E. Evans-Carrington, of Colorado, closed the discussion by asking for suggestions for parks for small cities.

Adjourned at 5.30 P.M.

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Saturday evening, May 31.

The Conference was called to order at 7.45 P.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by the Rev. George Elliott, of the Central Methodist Church. The Committee on the Feeble-minded and Epileptics reported through the chairman, A. W. Wilmarth, M.D. (page 152). A paper on the "Imbecile and Epileptic *versus* the Tax-payer and the Community," by Martin W. Barr, M.D., was read in his absence by Mr. E. R. Johnstone, principal of the New Jersey Training School (page 161).

A paper on "Farm Colonies for the Feeble-minded" was read by W. E. Fernald, M.D., superintendent Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded.

THE MASSACHUSETTS FARM COLONY FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

BY WALTER E. FERNALD, M.D.

The history of our American institutions for the feeble-minded during the past fifty years has demonstrated the fact that it is not expedient to return to the community a large proportion even of the brightest pupils who have received all the instruction and training the schools have to offer. Very few feeble-minded persons can be developed to the degree of usefulness and self-control necessary to enable them to earn money regularly, and to spend it in such a way as to independently maintain themselves in the outside world. Even those who have suitable homes and friends able and willing to become responsible for them, by the death of their relatives, are often thrown on their own resources, and eventually drift into idleness and pauperism, if not into crime.

Indeed, in many cases the friends of these trained pupils are unwilling to remove them, and beg that they be allowed to remain where they can be made happy and kept from harm. Many of these cases are homeless and friendless, and could only be transferred to almshouses.

They cannot be sent into the world without a loud protest from their friends or the communities where they are thrown. Even the brightest always need kindly but firm oversight and direction, rarely obtainable outside an institution.

We know that a large proportion of our able-bodied feeble-minded inmates, including many quite low in the mental scale, can be developed into very efficient workers at ordinary rough manual labor.

Given the right sort of diet, bodily discipline, training of personal habits, plenty of sleep, plenty of outdoor exercise and actual work from childhood, they grow up to be big, brawny, willing, happy laborers. As a class, they are unskilled laborers; but they are capable of doing an enormous amount of this simple work.

Therefore, if the right sort of work can be provided, a large number of these trained adults, under intelligent supervision, under institution conditions, are capable of doing a sufficient amount of work to pay for the actual cost of their support. The difficulty is to find a profitable market for this unskilled labor.

In Massachusetts we have attempted to solve this problem by the organization of a farm colony to be managed in connection with the parent institution. A large tract of land, some 2,000 acres, was purchased at a cost of a little under $10 per acre. This estate, about one mile wide and three miles long, is located at Baldwinville, on the same line of railroad, but sixty miles away from the school at Waltham. The estate consisted of seven entire farms with old farm buildings and several odd parcels of pasture and woodland, including four large hills with the valleys and level land between the hills. There are at least 150 acres of good strong farming land sowed to grass and ready for the plough. There are four thrifty orchards, producing about 1,200 barrels of apples in a good fruit year. There are at least 5,000 cords of good hard wood, besides considerable timber, scattered over several hundred acres of rapidly growing woodland. The pastures in their present condition will pasture one hundred head of stock. There is a brook basin which will furnish an unlimited supply of the purest water. Large deposits of sand and gravel will provide for the disposal of sewage. There is an abundance of stone, sand, gravel, and clay for building purposes. There are hundreds of acres of sprout land covered with stones, stumps, and bushes, which the labor of our boys can transform into fertile, cultivated fields.

In May, 1900, fifty of our best adult workers were transferred to this colony. A temporary camp was quickly constructed near one of the existing farm-houses for a base. The boys were set to work digging wells, laying sewers, assembling building material, and excavating cellars for the permanent houses. One of the best of the farm-houses was put in thorough repair, and provided with a large and convenient kitchen, storerooms, and boys' dining and sitting room. This building provides rooms for employees and facilities for cooking and serving food. Sleeping-rooms, and a toilet-room for the boys are provided in detached buildings, some 150 feet away from the farm-houses. These dormitories are of wood, wire lathed and plastered inside, of one story, with many windows, each with three doors opening directly out doors, and each with a huge fireplace.

We have no steam plant. The buildings are heated by the fireplaces in mild weather and by huge wood stoves in the winter. All

the cooking is done by wood fires. All the fuel is cut on the place by the boys.

The water for domestic use and for the water-closets is pumped by the boys from near-by wells.

These permanent buildings were occupied by the boys before cold weather. We had no difficulty in keeping them perfectly warm and comfortable. During the winter the boys were kept busy cutting and teaming firewood, storing ice, and hauling lumber, stone, sand, etc., for future building operations. In the following spring these boys began the construction of buildings for this second colony group, located on a hill farmstead two miles away from the first group, and also consisting of a remodelled and enlarged farm-house with detached dormitories, etc. The fifty boys for this second group were transferred to their new home in the autumn of 1901.

A third group of similar buildings is now nearly completed on a farm midway between those described above, and will be occupied within a few weeks. We expect to add other groups or colonies from year to year.

The first colony group has been in actual operation for two full years. These trained imbeciles have lived in ordinary New England farm dwellings. These low-cost buildings have furnished most homelike and comfortable acommodations.

The boys have been steadily employed in the open air summer and winter. They have become big, ruddy, muscular, healthy fellows. No boy was ill in bed for any cause for the first year. They have been thoroughly happy and contented,— indeed, far more so than is ever the case under ordinary institution conditions. We have created a little community suited to the need and capacity of these feeble-minded boys, or men,— a little world made for them, where they live the natural life of a country boy.

They trap woodchucks, pick berries, gather nuts. They have their baseball nines and their football teams. They go coasting and skating in the winter and swimming in the brook in the summer. *What more can a boy want?*

In the evening the matron and female attendants gather them in the cheerful sitting-room, with its pictures and books, with a big, roaring wood fire in the fireplace, and spend the evening popping corn, eating apples, playing games, reading stories, and, best of all, singing the songs they love so well. Each sitting-room has a parlor organ. This daily directed entertainment and recreation carried out by devoted women seems to me absolutely essential to keep them happy and to arouse and cultivate their social instincts.

There has been a noticeable improvement in the mental condition of our colonists. Nearly every boy has become appreciably more intelligent, capable, and self-reliant.

So far the boys have been chiefly occupied in work incidental to the construction of the buildings. This construction work done by

the boys, if done by hired workmen, would have cost a sum equal to the entire cost of their maintenance for the year. In the future we expect to use this labor in the clearing of land and in ordinary farming operations. The parent institution will afford a market for the milk, beef, potatoes, and other vegetables, fruit, poultry, eggs, and other food products produced by this farming community.

In making provisions for these persons, we have borne in mind certain facts. The persons to be provided for are a selected class of the feeble-minded. Nearly all of them have been under training in our school since childhood. They do not need expensive schoolrooms and appliances. They are not sick people requiring hospital provision and care. They are not violently insane or criminals requiring heavy brick walls or barred windows to prevent escape. They need only the most simple living apartments, roomy, sunny, well warmed, and ventilated, with the very best toilet and bathing facilities and suitable appliances for the cooking and serving of food.

The buildings themselves should be exceedingly plain and simple. What intrinsic reason is there for building more expensive structures than middle-class people build for their own dwellings in the same community?

The plan outlined above, begun in a small way, can be indefinitely extended as needed. The trained graduates from the school can at once be given a field for the full exercise of their trained abilities, where they will not come in competition with normal people, and where they will be shielded from the temptations that assail them in the world outside, where they will get the slight supervision they always need, and where there will always be a market for whatever they are able to make or to do. In fact, they will be placed under the right conditions for utilizing all the powers God has given them.

[In November, 1881, the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded organized a Farm Colony for feeble-minded male adults on an estate of 175 acres at Medfield, some twenty miles from the parent school, then located at South Boston. This "Howe Farm," as it was called, was successfully conducted on the general plan described above until 1889, when the farm was sold and the boys moved to the newly purchased estate at Waltham to do the rough work connected with the development of the farm and the construction of new institution buildings.]

DISCUSSION ON THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC.

Dr. W. A. Polglase, Superintendent Michigan School for Feeble-minded.— If you reflect how many belong to this class in Michigan alone, you will be appalled; for there are about nine thousand in this state. What are you going to do about it? The question is a

practical one. I am asked frequently, What is an imbecile? The ordinary individual thinks that an imbecile is something absolutely good for nothing, who could never be made useful. Speaking in general terms, an imbecile is one concerning whom it is often difficult to discern, how he differs from a normal individual; but he has a faulty brain, either from sickness or accident or heredity. Usually there is heredity back of it. It is a question of degree how much imbecility amounts to, but every one has a mental defect. The question, What shall we do with the imbecile, has been answered so many times by able men long in the work that it seems almost foolish to dwell upon it. The old idea was that the imbecile could be reclaimed and made normal; but experience has shown that that cannot be accomplished, that we can only train what the imbecile has, and that he should never be allowed to go back into the community except under guardianship. Laws should be made which should protect the imbecile and the community, and all imbeciles should be segregated. The Connecticut law has been spoken of. Laws to prevent the marriage of imbeciles and epileptics should be passed in every state.

During the past month I have had several cases brought to my mind which emphasize the necessity for such a law in this state. I was called to examine a case for the prosecution, the lawyer for defence rightly recognizing mental deficiency; and yet this young woman told me that she had gone to the eighth grade in school. She was clearly an imbecile. This class of girls are very proud of making themselves objects of interest. She was strong and as fine a specimen of development as I have ever seen, and she had but few marks of the degenerate; but her heredity was bad, and her environment had been very bad. The fact that she was mentally irresponsible was one reason why she had shifted about from one family to another. She was finally arrested for child-murder. She had no moral nature, no conception of her crime whatever, and rather looked upon it as an act of heroism. The girl was discharged, and the question came up as to her admittance to our institution. A girl of that character could easily slip away from us; and this took place on another occasion, when a girl, being rather attractive, wandered off, having conceived the idea that she could support herself. She was found wandering about, and taken to a farmer's house. He learned from her that she was an inmate of the home, and took her to his own house for the night. He tried to persuade her to return, but she persisted that she was able to earn her own living; but early in the morning he started off with her. He was supposed to be an honorable citizen of the community, but she became the victim of his lust. We found that we had no redress whatever except in case the girl became pregnant, when the wife of this man had the right to make complaint. It seems to me that there should be a law to cover such a case as that.

Another case was of a girl who had been in our school at Adrian, and had been taken out at the age limit. She was attractive, but had no idea of responsibility. She wandered from one relative to the other. She fell a victim to members of my own sex: I blush for men. Finally, she wandered back to us; but the county thought that it was too expensive to keep her there, and they asked to have her relatives found. But the girl was in no condition, from disease and from pregnancy, to be returned to any county home. After some time the girl was allowed to remain with us. Such cases show how important it is to have a law to provide for them.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Superintendent School for Feeble-minded, Indiana.—I am sorry that Dr. Barr was not here to read his own paper, because, I think, he has uttered a doctrine which is fallacious. Dr. Barr advocates absolute separation of the training school for the educable imbecile and the custodial asylum. That policy has been followed in New York, and it is a mistaken policy for this reason. The only hope that I can see of the state taking complete care and responsibility of all idiots and imbeciles is that all those who have been trained, those of the higher grade who are susceptible to training, who have been trained to the highest degree possible for them, shall be so usefully employed that they may be practically self-supporting. We need a great deal of low-grade labor, and a great deal of labor can be performed by laborers of a low degree of intelligence. In the care of the lowest custodial grade of imbeciles, in the care of epileptics of low grade, there is a great deal of labor available among our trained imbeciles; and they can do no better work than to exercise such care in an institution. Just as soon as you separate them and take away the adults from the training school, it is hard to find work for them; while as long as they are under one management it is comparatively easy. I agree with Dr. Barr that the classes ought not to be mixed up. They ought to be kept widely apart, but that is easy with the modern way of building. No one wants now to build an enormous building. We all want the village plan. What I claim is, with separate dormitories and schoolrooms, that under one management the adult feeble-minded can be usefully employed. I believe that the ideal system is to have institutions that shall include the various grades. The highest grade imbeciles are nearly normal; but, when you talk with them a little while, you find out that there is something wrong. You may separate these different classes widely, as they do in Massachusetts, where the farm colony is sixty miles from the parent institution; but they are all under the control of one head. I do not like it quite so far away. I want to get to my farm in twenty minutes. But one advantage in having the colonies widely separate is that you can keep your accounts separate. We can tell exactly what our farm cost last year. We had not so large a tract, but we had a larger proportion under cultivation. The net cost was $32 and a few cents. That repre-

sents the cost for 93 boys, of whom about 40 are middle and high grade imbeciles and about 50 are low-grade idiots. 40 boys were a little more than self-supporting, earning more than it costs to keep them. You may be afraid that we are starving them or that they are not having a good time, but you will see for yourselves that that is not so, if you will visit them. They are well and happy. We have a custodial cottage for the lower grade of girls, 142 of them. They are in four divisions. They have only five attendants. Then there is a house-mother and a woman in charge of the kitchen, eight women for 140 inmates. They could not possibly be cared for as well as they are if we had not ten girls, trained imbeciles of the highest grade, who have been in the institution many years, who work in that cottage. They save us at least $800 in wages and cost of keeping, if we had to hire attendants; and the care they give is excellent. I suppose the time will come, even in a mixed institution of all grades, when it will be hard to find sufficient employment for the trained adult; but we have not got to any such place yet. We have many places in the household where we could use four or five more boys or girls if we had them of the right degree of training. The people in Massachusetts are on the right track. We ought not to separate the institution, but to keep all classes under one management. Classify as much as you please. We have 835 children, and we have thirteen divisions of girls and ten of boys.

There is another point. Do you ever consider that what the child gets on the playground from his fellows is worth as much as he gets in the school-house? A child brought up under no matter how good a teacher, brought up away from his parents, with no rivalry with other children, and no occasional scraps, does not become as manly as that child will who is brought up in the fun and frolic of boyhood plays with a good many friends. That is what the imbecile child cannot have outside the institution, because, if an imbecile child plays with normal children, he is either made much of as an object of pity or he is abused: he is either a butt or a plaything, not treated as an equal. He does not, he cannot, hold his own with other boys; and they get him into mischief. But bring him away from association with other children, normal boys, and put him with a group like himself, of the same mental and physical grade, and at once he finds his level, and he gets the benefit that comes from attrition and from being shaken up with others. You know how they polish brass castings. They have a tumbling box where they are thrown in together and shaken up, and they polish themselves by rubbing against each other. So it is with our children. Take a girl or boy in a company like himself, and he gets that attrition. So a large institution is better than a small one, because we can have associations of that kind.

One word with regard to the possibility of curing imbecility. We are so often asked, "Can you cure him?" A school for the feeble-minded is not a hospital: it is a school. It is not a medical institu-

tion, though we have a hospital of course; but it is an educational institution. There is no reason why the superintendent of such a school should have a medical diploma, though it is a good thing to have studied medicine; for it is a valuable thing for him to know the laws of hygiene and sanitation and dietetics. It is a school. As a school for the deaf takes deaf children, and a school for the blind takes blind children, and these schools do not give hearing and sight again, so the school for the feeble-minded does not claim to cure the defect of the brain. That cannot be done. They cannot go out into the community again normal children. They must stay where they will be cared for, and where people will not expect more of them than they can do. And that means that they should stay under guardianship as long as they live.

Dr. KEATING, Superintendent School for Feeble-minded, Maryland. I have just had the pleasure of presiding at the meeting of the National Association of the Superintendents of Institutions for the Feeble-minded, and the questions discussed there are about the same as have come up here to-night. What is to become of the feeble-minded children educated in our institutions? That is a burning question in every such school. I think Massachusetts has struck the keynote in forming a colony for the overflow from the school. Dr. Fernald has given you a paper describing an ideal institution for the feeble-minded youth of this country, and I hope that the other states that have institutions will follow the example of Massachusetts. Maryland is a small state, and we are building our institution on the cottage plan, each cottage to contain from thirty to seventy-five inmates; and in that way we shall avoid having large buildings.

One word in regard to schools for backward children. It is a good thing in many ways; but a great many children that would otherwise go to the schools for the feeble-minded where they would have proper supervision, which they absolutely need, will not get it in the public school. The proper education of a feeble-minded child is not in the school-room: it is through the daily routine of work and life.

I will refer to one case. We have a case on record of a girl who left us four years and a half ago. She was a low-grade imbecile with club feet, so that she could not walk without assistance or shoes particularly adapted to her feet. Her mother insisted on taking her home; she was an ignorant woman. I protested, but I had no lawful means to restrain her. The other day I ran across this girl. She was making her way back to the institution. I asked her what she wanted. She said she wanted to see the other girls. I asked what she wanted to see them for; and she replied, to tell them what a nice time she had outside the institution. I told her I would put her on the car and send her to her mother. She replied that she lived away from her mother, and had four children of her own! Now that is one of many cases that we have to deal with,— I repeat, *one of*

many. That girl was a very repulsive creature, a girl that no one in this large assembly would for one moment have thought of marrying; yet we had her own testimony and the testimony of her parents that she had had four children. It will be interesting to see what will be the mental capacity of those children.

Another case that I investigated recently was of a woman who came to me, and said that her husband had died and she had seven children, four boys and three girls. All four boys were feeble-minded. Her husband would not let her part with them while he lived, but he had died and left no property. I investigated the matter, and found that these four boys were perfectly helpless. She was colored, and three or four of her children were in our institution. Her sister had two children with us, and she had two cousins in the institution.

The PRESIDENT.— The only way to get rid of such imbeciles is to stop raising them.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

EIGHTH GENERAL SESSION.

Sunday afternoon, June 1.

The members of the Conference assembled in a body at 2.45 P.M., and went in procession to the Light Guard Armory, where the Conference sermon was preached by the Rt. Rev. John Lancaster Spalding, of Peoria, Ill. (page 13).

The music was under the direction of Mrs. Elmer E. Liggett.

NINTH GENERAL SESSION.

Sunday night, June 1.

Many meetings were held Sunday night throughout the city, addressed by different members of the Conference; but the only one on the official programme was that held in the Central Methodist Church, where addresses were to have been made by the Rev. John F. Mullany, of Syracuse, N.Y. (page 338), and Mr. James L. Blair, of St. Louis, Mo. These gentlemen were not present. Mr. Mullany's paper was read by Mr. T. P. Pennyman, and Mr. Blair's was read by title (page 328). A letter from Hon. William Dudley Foulke, United States Civil Service Commissioner, was read (page 324), by the President.

The PRESIDENT.— The change in our state has been marvellous. The condition described was the condition fifteen years ago, and was one of the things that led to the creation of the State Board of Charities. That board took up the matter at once, and determined that all this political management should cease. It required several years before we succeeded; but now, with one exception, the prison, every state institution in Indiana has been taken out of politics. Civil service has been introduced. The head of an institution cannot be removed by his board except for incompetency. He cannot be removed on account of politics, and the head of an institution cannot remove any subordinate on account of politics.

The President then introduced Dr. Runge, of Missouri.

Dr. EDWARD C. RUNGE, Superintendent St. Louis Asylum for the Insane.— After hearing this paper, I would say that under those conditions in Indiana a man like myself would never have been a superintendent of an asylum for the insane, or, if I had been appointed, I would have resigned. It is almost impossible to conceive that men would work under those conditions, where their authority over their patients is taken away from them. These people are put away because society does not want them. They are peculiarly constituted: they may be dangerous. They are entirely different from penitentiary inmates; for a prisoner's complaints would be listened to, while the poor insane man is not listened to.

I do not know if any state is as bad as Indiana was fifteen years ago. The Far Western states I do not know anything about: we hardly ever see the men at our meetings. We get their annual reports, but that is as far as our knowledge goes. But here you are on a soil which every American, working on these lines, should be proud of. We always quote Michigan and New York as the two states to which we look up with pride. Michigan has no political system of any kind. Civil service is there, as far as I know; but there are other states where things are not quite so glorious, where political influence interferes with the management of the insane. No business men among you, if you were to give the construction of an important bridge, would dream of intrusting it to any one but a competent engineer. You would not take men entirely unfitted for any special work, and give them that work to do. But we do not find that care in selecting men to be at the head of an institution. A great many of my professional brethren, who are first-class men in general practice, are unfit to be at the head of an institution, because it takes study of a peculiar nature, and not only study, but a peculiar composition of a man to take charge of an institution of that kind properly. This is so simple that, if you will show me your superintendent and let me talk with him three hours, I can tell you what kind of an institution he has back of him. It is so with the feeble-

minded. It is the man at the head who will show what kind of an institution he has, under favorable conditions. But, when the conditions are not so favorable and the superintendent must stand abuse, it is not fair to judge the institution by him. He may be willing and capable, but he may not have that philanthropic nature which would make him unwilling to submit to other authorities and feed his patients with bad meat or with pork with trichinæ or butter with maggots. He would get out and make an ado. If I were put in such a place, I would get out to-morrow, and you would hear something about it. Where the political system is carried out, it goes all the way down. Imagine a capable man in charge of an institution walking round his wards and having to deal with a lot of men and women who are there because of political influence, or of having friends on the board, not because of fitness for their positions. A superintendent has no power, if he has such a board at his side. And the contractors who deal with the boards! A contractor who will sell such things to an institution as are mentioned in that letter, while I do not believe in capital punishment, if there is ever an instance when we should hang a man, it is the man who sells such things to insane asylums; for it is wholesale murder to give such things to people who have absolutely nothing to eat but what is set before them. They *must* eat it or starve, and we cannot let them starve. If they will not eat, we often have to feed them with a stomach-tube. We feed them against their will, because such patients must be nourished. Their life depends upon it at times. The man who will furnish such food is a contemptible maggot himself, and I have no use for him; and there is no language strong enough to express what I think should be done with such people. And they are ubiquitous. They are not in one city or state. My experience has been that men who stand high in the community and who are rated by Bradstreet as "A 1," who would not injure you as an individual, will do any damage they can to a state institution. They manage to justify themselves: it is remarkable. There must be something strange about them: they must divide their consciences into two separate divisions, one for public and one for private dealings, which seem never to clash. In fact, they never do clash. And yet I doubt if such contractors are worse than the men in the legislature who, when they want to reward men for political service, make them appointees, and put them into institutions to care for the insane when they are not fit for the work. One thing is sure: attendants should be trained for the care of the insane, or these hundreds of helpless inmates of our institutions are at the mercy of people who have no qualifications for the work. You will see a great many people give up their time to take care of delinquent children, and properly so; but, when it comes to the insane, there is the old superstition that the insane are something entirely apart. But the insane man is just like any other sick person, except that

he is more difficult to deal with. The training school is not the most vital thing, either: the character, the temper, of the individual is even more important than the training.

Rev. Geo. Elliott closed the discussion.

Adjourned at 9.30 P.M.

TENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday morning, June 2.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M. Prayer was offered by the Rev. R. W. Clark, of St. Paul's Episcopal Church.

The report of the Committee on Time and Place was made by the chairman. Invitations had been received from Denver, Col., Richmond, Va., Dallas, Tex., Atlanta, Ga., and Portland, Me. The committee voted unanimously to recommend that the next meeting should be held in the month of May in Atlanta, Ga.

On motion of Mr. Hart the report was accepted.

After some discussion the following resolution, offered by Mr. Hart, was adopted: —

Resolved, That the invitation of the city of Atlanta be accepted, provided the local authorities shall make arrangements satisfactory to the President and General Secretary; but, in case they should be unable to do so, that those officers be authorized to accept the invitation of Portland, Me.

On motion it was voted that the time should be left with the Executive Committee.

On motion of Mr. Hart it was voted that the thanks of the Conference should be sent to all those cities from which invitations had been received. Taken by rising vote.

The report of the Committee on Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Nursing, was next in order, Mr. Byers, chairman; but the papers and discussion were devoted to the subject of tuberculosis.

Mr. J. P. Byers.— For some years I have been very much interested in the lack of proper provision for crippled and deformed children. I have had it in mind that the state should have, either under state supervision and control and management or, preferably, under private management and control, a hospital that should give the best surgical and medical treatment to crippled children, whose

defects can so often be altogether removed or greatly modified by early treatment; that we should also have in connection with such a hospital a system of trade or manual training schools; and that the hospital and the trade school, working together, should make these otherwise hopeless little ones as fit as possible to meet the world. This, to me, ideal arrangement has not been perfected in any state. I would have in that hospital provision for children who are in county infirmaries and county homes, where usually little attention is paid to their deformities. I would have provision for those in private homes whose parents cannot afford the means to treat them, and I would have the whole thing of so high a grade that the children of the well-to-do would be sent there for treatment and training. As for the trade schools, they should be no less perfect than the hospital. I would have them afford an opportunity for every child to acquire the trade best fitted to his or her condition, physical or mental. This is a subject of great importance, and I hope to see it taken up at some future Conference.

I have the consent of my committee to make no formal report. You will agree with me before the morning is over that they were wise in agreeing to give the time usually devoted to committee reports to the consideration of the topic to be presented in the next paper. The Committee on Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Nursing, feels singularly fortunate in being able to present to the National Conference a paper on "What shall we do with the Consumptive Poor?" by an eminent authority and writer upon "Tuberculosis"; and the chairman takes pleasure in introducing to you the author of that paper, Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York City.

Dr. Knopf read a paper on "The Consumptive Poor" (page 218).

DISCUSSION ON TUBERCULOSIS.

Professor VICTOR C. VAUGHAN, Dean of the University of Michigan.— Dr. Knopf says that tuberculosis is not a *dangerous* communicable disease, because it is easily avoided. If we are to accept that understanding, and say that a disease is dangerous in proportion to the difficulty with which we avoid it, then death by lightning is the most dangerous, because we have least control over it. Consumption is a disease dangerous to the public health, and it kills more people than any other; and the proper way to estimate danger is by the amount of injury done. I know that Dr. Knopf and I hold exactly the same view, but we use words differently. When he says it is a disease that is not dangerous to the public health, he is placing in the hands of certain people a weapon by which they will fight every measure to overcome consumption. I heartily agree with everything else he has said. I also wish to honor the rich philanthropists who have given so much for private charities; but I would

like to ask, How many consumptives have been made in the accumulation of great fortunes? How many have been made in the foul tenement houses? If there were more justice in this world, there would be less need of charity. Dr. Knopf very properly emphasized the means that are necessary to prevent and to cure consumption, and to take care of our tuberculous poor; but there are one or two things which he did not mention. He said something about the difficulty of taking care of initial cases of consumption because they do not have enough to eat. The country which permits such an institution as the meat trust to exist is committing a crime in making it more difficult for the poor man to get proper sustenance upon which to live. What people need, as was said long ago, is a cheap, fatty food. Oleomargarine was discovered and made suitable as food, and now our government taxes it so that the poor man cannot eat it unless it has the mark which shows it is the poor man's food. These things I do not believe in. I believe in justice as well as charity.

Dr. Knopf says that consumption kills one-seventh of the human race. There is no question about that. Not less than 150,000 die annually in the United States of pulmonary tuberculosis. It would seem at first that the case is hopeless, but it is a disease that can be easily eradicated. All we need is intelligent co-operation throughout the country. There is no other grave disease so easily curable as this. Many people get well, if you simply give them a chance. Many get well, if you give them in addition enough to eat and a good place in which to live. This is a great work, in which both public and private charity might be interested. Tuberculosis can be cured, there is no doubt about it. In 1865 a man by the name of Boehmer established a hospital where he claimed to cure a great many people of consumption. Two or three years ago an attempt was made to find how many of the people that it was claimed were cured were living, and they found many; and they made post-mortems of those who died of other diseases, and it was found that he was right. The tuberculosis had been cured.

How is it to be done? By the establishment of sanatoriums, by better food for the people, by better homes in which they may live. After a while it will be a crime for a man to build such tenement houses as are built to-day. Physicians should examine every one once in two years to see if there is any tubercular affection. This is a great problem. Our ancestors had such a problem. A few hundred years ago there were seventeen hundred hospitals for lepers in Western Europe. The crusaders had brought the disease, and spread it; but they got rid of it. They compelled the lepers to live in hospitals; and, if they travelled, to wear a distinctive garb by day and by night to have a bell. And they rid the land of leprosy. We have the opportunity of ridding ourselves of tuberculosis, and we are going to do it. I am an optimist through and through. If we keep on

even with the means we are exercising now, in two hundred years consumption will be known only as a matter of medical history. But we want it to go faster, and to have more people interested in doing away with it. It is well for rich men to give money for hospitals for tuberculosis, but we should not be dependent on the will of the rich. Taxation is a legitimate means of taking from the rich man and giving to the poor man. It is just and right. Let us hope that the day will come when no government, whether monarchic or republican, will allow any human affliction to exist among its people which science can rid the people of; for that nation which gives to its people the longest, the best, the happiest life, is the best government.

Mr. EDWARD T. DEVINE, Secretary Charity Organization Society, New York.— This subject is one in which I feel intensely interested. I recall the fact that within eighteen months three of our own workers have succumbed to tuberculosis. Two such conspicuous and useful members of the Conference, as Mr. N. S. Rosenau and Mr. A. G. Warner have been its victims.

It seems to me that we stand in that dark hour just before daylight, on this subject, when we think the condition is desperate, and that something *must* soon happen in regard to it; when we feel that, if it is a disease that can be eradicated, then it must be eradicated; if it is a communicable disease, then every precaution shall be taken to prevent its being communicated; if it is a curable disease, it must be cured oftener. There is a great gap, a wide gulf, between our knowledge on this subject and the results which we accomplish. Our problem is to bridge that gulf and to translate what we know about tuberculosis into the saving of lives and the prevention of needless suffering. For we must not overlook the fact that there is great agony in many forms of this disease. In Cuba within the last year the great scourge of yellow fever, which has prevailed there for two hundred years, has yielded to scientific knowledge converted into public action. The military government was able, the moment the doctors pointed out the means, to act. The force of sanitary inspectors, that had been at work cleaning up the cities, were turned largely into a crusade against the mosquito; and within five months there was, for the first time in two hundred years, not a case of yellow fever in Havana. It seems to me that in precisely the same spirit and in the same confidence of definite results we should in every community attack this more dangerous and more universal scourge.

Dr. George Dock, Ann Arbor, Mich., read an address (page 237).

Mr. F. L. HOFFMAN, New Jersey.— We have heard much of the need of charity in dealing with the problem of consumption, but a more imperative need is *justice*. A very large number of our workingmen, many of whom have been referred to as the "consumptive

poor," are employed in occupations in which consumption is of excessively common occurrence. Many of our most useful wage-earners are compelled to spend the larger part of their lives in an unsanitary workshop, where conditions exist which predispose directly to a large mortality from consumption. Thus, for example, we have stone-cutters, printers, glass-workers, hatters, silk-workers, cigar-makers, and potters, — all occupations in which consumption causes from thirty to forty-five per cent. of the total mortality. At some ages — say twenty-five to thirty-four among printers, for example — fifty-five per cent. of the entire mortality is due to consumption. While these facts are generally well known, practically nothing is being done to ascertain the underlying causes of an evil of vast proportions. Such sanitary and social progress as has been made during the past thirty years has done much to decrease the death-rate from consumption, but there is imperative need for a more intelligent interest, especially on the part of the medical profession and the charity worker in the diseases of occupations, to be supplemented by an intelligent method of factory inspection. Many of our factories and workshops, and I may add many stores and office buildings, are in a very unsanitary condition; and we find that among the employees in whom consumption is of comparatively frequent occurrence are book-keepers and salesmen. Instead of dealing in generalities, let us rather deal with a specific application of the modern theory of the cause of consumption to specific facts. I heartily indorse the plea of Dr. Knopf for state sanatoria for the consumptive poor; but, unless established on a very large scale, they cannot possibly effect one tithe of the good to be anticipated from an intelligent study of the diseases of occupations and an active and intelligent method of factory inspection, which, as in England, should have medical assistance. The annual reports of the chief medical inspector of factories and workshops for the United Kingdom form, perhaps, the most useful addition to our knowledge of the causes responsible for the unnecessary premature mortality of a large number of our most useful industrial workers. What applies to factories and workshops applies equally to the houses of the poor, and what is urgently needed as one of the first steps in the direction of diminishing the mortality from consumption is a "Housing Commission" rather than a "Tenement Commission." Such a housing commission, or a subcommittee of the board of health, should deal energetically with the problem, and stamp out well-known sources of consumption to which now large numbers of innocent workingmen and their families fall victims. There are a large number of houses in every city which are veritable centres of infection, veritable death-traps, which it is plainly the duty of the state to destroy. To the workingman good health and long life are absolute essentials, and in no direction can charity workers do more good than by deliberate and scientific efforts to educate the public in regard to the existence of conditions which have no right to continue in a civilized community.

The subject of state insurance for consumptives I have discussed at some length before the second New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, and I need only repeat that, whatever plans have thus far been brought forward, have been proven impracticable and inexpedient. Insurance companies insure healthy people, taking every precaution to guard against adverse selection; while the proposed effort would be to insure sick people practically doomed to die of a particular disease. The adverse selection would be so very great that it would be impossible to place the proposition on anywhere near a paying basis, and the same would be practically reduced to a charitable aid by which the small contributions of the diseased would have to be supplemented by large contributions from private sources or through the agency of the state. It seems to me that the only practical method of diminishing the burdens of the charitable, in providing for the needs of consumptives, lies in the direction indicated of measures tending to diminish materially the present excessive and unnecessary mortality from consumption by stamping out the sources of the disease and the centres of infection which now expose vast numbers to an entirely unnecessary premature mortality. Let charity workers co-operate to this end with the board of health, the tenement commission, and the factory inspectors, and an immense amount of good can be accomplished in a comparatively short period to stamp out a vast amount of needless disease now the curse and the bane of the helpless poor.

Dr. H. B. Baker, health officer, Lansing, Mich., read a paper on "What shall we do with the Consumptives?" (page 231).

Dr. Herbert Maxon King, Grand Rapids, Mich.— I am sorry that so much public attention has been drawn to that distinction without a difference between the contagiousness and the communicability of consumption. I should not like it to prevail popularly that there is any vital difference of opinion on this point in medical circles. Dr. Knopf has told us that twenty-five per cent. of autopsies on bodies of individuals dying from all causes show evidence of latent or active tuberculous disease. Even more might be claimed with fairness. We have very reliable evidence from high European authority to the effect that 98 per cent. of all individuals above thirty years of age have foci of tuberculosis active or latent, as shown by autopsies on hundreds of bodies of persons dying from all causes. Thus the fact of its almost universal infection would seem to place the question of its communicability beyond a doubt. However, since but one in seven of the race is said to die of consumption, while a so much greater proportion have the disease in some form, proves that the vast majority recovers, with or without any treatment, and at the same time proves its curability. There is evidently a necessity for some place of refuge for the con-

sumptive, not only for the rich, but for the poor. This necessity would seem to be met in three classes of institutions: municipal hospitals for practically incurable cases,— there are very few in the country of this class,— second, dispensaries; and, third, state institutions for the reception and treatment of incipient cases which promise cure. In Massachusetts and a few other states, care is given to the incipient cases; and there are now several communities giving care to hopeless cases. In Michigan, for several years, there has been a bill before the legislature for an appropriation to erect state institutions for caring for consumptives. In every county we have a poorhouse, which is usually on a farm; and the farms are not often worked in their entirety. In my own county the poor-farm comprises about 140 acres, with about 40 acres under cultivation. Pavilions for consumptives in each county could be erected on these farms, sufficiently removed from the poorhouse itself to allow proper separation of the two classes of indigents, where those who are able could work on the farm and sleep in the pavilion, and thus get the benefit of the best opportunity for recovery they could have in this climate. This would take people out of shops and stores and the environment in which they have become diseased. Educate them in the care of themselves: cure a certain per cent., and remove by so much the foci of infection from the community.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass., asked to have Mrs. Lincoln, of Boston, speak on this subject.

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, Boston, Mass.— We owe a great debt of gratitude to Dr. Knopf for his able paper, and I wish to thank him. If you want good things, you must ask for them; and usually you can get them. We have found that to be true in Massachusetts, especially in providing for the needs of the sick poor. We are building in connection with the almshouse hospital of Boston a wing to accommodate fifty-nine cases of tuberculosis. This is not to take the place of a municipal hospital for incipient cases, which the best authorities have been asking for for a number of years, but to meet the needs created by the ruling of the board of health that consumption is to be treated as a contagious disease and that patients suffering from it are to be isolated. We expect soon to have this ward completed. If you believe in municipal and state hospitals for consumptives, and ask the proper authorities for them, I believe that you will get them.

Mrs. Seraphine Pisko, Vice-President National Conference of Jewish Charities, Denver, Col.— It would be impossible, in the short time given to this discussion, to tell you of the splendid work that is being done by a hospital situated in Denver with which I am proud to be connected. Colorado has been the Mecca for consumptives. Those who were fortunate enough to have the means could, in this

glorious climate, regain their health. The poor ones were too often destined to die for want of proper care. It was for this class that the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives was opened. This hospital is under the auspices of the Jewish people of the United States, but it is non-sectarian and national in its scope. The only requirement for admission is that the applicant shall be unable to pay and that he shall be in the early stage of consumption, no pay patients being accepted. The results have been excellent. Dr. Knopf knows all about this sanatorium, and he can tell you much more ably than I could of the good that is being accomplished.

Just a word in reference to a question raised by a previous speaker in reference to consumptive patients in county hospitals. In Arapahoe County all consumptives are now cared for in cottages situated on the county farm. The farm is seven miles from the city, and this is a great improvement on the former consumptive ward in the hospital.

Dr. Knopf was invited to close the discussion.

Dr. S. A. KNOPF.— It was with a purpose that I have incorporated in my paper a little item with reference to conclusions on communicability. If I had not done so, there would have been nothing but agreement; and I do not like discussion when every one agrees with me. To be serious, I have had a long, bitter, and sad experience before succeeding to have tuberculosis considered a communicable and not a dangerous contagious disease. I am not going to relate all my experiences in this matter: I will only tell you of two instances.

A little sewing woman had been treated by me for incipient tuberculosis. I succeeded with her as any doctor can. One day she came to me, after I had virtually discharged her as cured, saying, "O doctor, I am in trouble." "What is the matter, my child?" I asked. "My sister has lost her best job. The other day she mentioned your name, and said that you had cured me of consumption. When they heard that she had had a consumptive sister, that settled her occupation in that family."

Another case was that of a man who had a somewhat persistent but not tuberculous cough, who was discharged because his employer was afraid of consumption.

I brought this matter of phthisio-phobia (exaggerative fear from consumptives), started by the Treasury Department, before the New York Academy of Medicine; and this body after careful deliberation passed the following resolutionon, on Feb. 6, 1902:—

Whereas the Treasury Department of the United States upon recommendation of the Surgeon-general of the Marine Hospital Service has recently decided to classify pulmonary tuberculosis with dangerous contagious diseases, be it

Resolved, That the New York Academy of Medicine deeply deplores this decision, which is not based on either clinical experience or scientific experiments.

Resolved, That the Academy considers the exclusion of non-pauper tuberculous immigrants and consumptive aliens visiting our shores unwise, inhuman, and contrary to the dictates of justice. Be it further

Resolved, That, while the Academy is convinced of the communicability of tuberculosis and urges all possible precautions against the spread of the disease occasioned by sputum and tuberculous food, the Academy is opposed to all measures by which needless hardship is imposed upon the consumptive individual, his family, and his physician.

If there are any medical men in this audience, they will testify that I have always upheld the fact that the patient should be most carefully watched, and that the sputum was the most dangerous factor in contagion. I do not believe in frightening people into obedience, but in educating them to observe sanitary laws. If you call tuberculosis a dangerous contagious disease, what is the result? All well people will cry out for isolation of all consumptives. If you take away every consumptive, what does that mean? That means that you must isolate about 20 per cent. of the population. If a patient is absolutely careless, ignorant, or vicious, and will not obey sanitary laws, then he must be isolated. If he is obedient to those laws, we must treat him with sympathy and kindness, and consider him as a fellow-man, afflicted, it is true, with a terrible disease, that may, nevertheless, be overcome by such obedience and proper treatment. Consumption should not be considered as a dangerous contagious disease for another reason. If a man thinks he has tuberculosis and knows that he will be ostracized when others know it, he will not go to a physician for examination, because he fears that, if he does, he will lose his job. He may be ostracized from society, and so will put off consulting any one till it is so late that the disease cannot be cured. Therefore, I repeat, I prefer to educate people, not to frighten them.

My distinguished confrère said that he thought people ought to be examined every two years. There we differ. Two years is not often enough. If we are to examine people, it should be every six months. The service of the United States military and sanitary officers in Cuba has been mentioned with reference to yellow fever. The United States may well be proud of that. And in Havana, where we have only been guests for a few months, more has been done to prevent tuberculosis than in any state or city of this Union. They have a visiting committee, they have dispensaries, they have hospitals for the advanced cases and sanatoria for incipient cases; and they have created all of these within a very short time, just because the United States government was at the head of it. Our individual state governments and municipal governments do not seem to do much. We shall never get rid of tuberculosis till we have a federal board of health which shall be at the head of such work.

It was not my intention to speak of the causes of tuberculosis, as

that was not the subject of my paper; but any one who is familiar with consumption knows that tailors, printers, glass-workers, drapers, and people working at similar trades are particularly exposed to it. Any place where one is exposed to dust, or in dark workshops, is especially dangerous, if one is predisposed to tuberculosis. But there is one class that has not been mentioned, the great class of clerks. Will you believe me when I tell of the danger in our great offices and banking houses in New York? The great bankers in those offices reinhale the very breath of their clerks over and over again. There is as much foul air in banking houses as in tailors' shops, and we have as many unfortunate consumptive clerks as laboring men. Let us have office inspectors as well as factory inspectors.

Child labor! To think that at this day, in the beginning of the twentieth century, there should be such a thing as child labor! If there is anything that we should be ashamed of, it is that that should exist; and I plead with you ladies, who have so much influence over men, to make your influence felt wherever you go, protesting against this crime of the century, child labor.

Concerning Boston, I must express my admiration. Boston is the only city in the United States which removes the tuberculous patient, when it is evident that he does not carry out instructions given by the physician, and when it is evident that, owing to his environment, he will constitute a source of danger. With the work of the sanatorium in Denver, of which Mrs. Pisko spoke, I am very familiar. They have had most excellent results, and have cured a great many. Their work is interesting from the fact that they do not return the patients. It is a well-known fact that, if you cure a patient in Colorado, if he goes back to his old environment, ten to one he will have a relapse, and will die ultimately of tuberculosis. Their work has my greatest admiration, and all I wish is that we had enough Mrs. Lincolns and Mrs. Piskos, so that tuberculous poor would be well cared for.

QUESTION.—You spoke of a colony, an agricultural colony. Do you mean a colony or a farm? To me the idea of a colony means a place where people colonize, marry, and raise families. Is that your idea?

DR. KNOPF.—I think I mean both. I believe it would be a wise thing to have a farm, and, when the patients are cured, to colonize them,— *after they are cured!*

QUESTION.— What is your opinion of the rulings of the Boston Board of Health?

Dr. KNOPF.— I believe in them for two reasons. By having a great number of cases reported to the board of health we may find the underlying causes of tuberculosis. It is the duty of the Board of Health to find out the causes. I am most emphatically in favor of reporting cases; but I do not believe that, if the physician reports his case and says, I am responsible for hygienic conditions, that the health officer should have a right to send an inspector and say, We

will do thus and so. I think the latter should not interfere with a patient whose physician does not wish to have interference.

Mr. E. P. BICKNELL.— When in Boston, a few months ago, I was talking with Mrs. Lincoln about a pavilion for the tuberculous poor on an island in the harbor; and I understood that the erection of a pavilion by the salt water had been opposed.

Dr. KNOPF.— I do not believe in any specific curative quality of any climate. I believe there is no such thing as a specific climate for consumption. Hygienic and dietetic treatment under medical supervision is what is wanted: climate helps. You can cure your consumptive here in Michigan if you have a place where the air is relatively pure, and where you have a proper institution. Experience has taught us, however, that inland sanatoria with relatively dry atmosphere offer a better adjuvant in the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis; and, as a whole, I am willing to indorse what my Boston friends have done. If the question had been to place a sanatorium for children, I should emphatically have indorsed the island plan, particularly if near the seacoast.

Adjourned at 12 M.

ELEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday night, June 2.

The Conference was called to order at 7.45 P.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Charles B. Newnan, of the Central Christian Church.

Mr. L. L. Barbour introduced Dr. Goenaga, a delegate from Porto Rico, superintendent of an asylum for the insane in San Juan. Dr. Goenaga presented a report (page 182).

The subject for the evening was the "Care of the Insane," Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Chicago, chairman. The first paper presented was by Dr. Frederick Peterson, president of the State Lunacy Commission of New York, and was read in his absence by Mr. A. Johnson (page 166).

The following resolution, read by General Brinkerhoff, was offered by Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, of Alabama: —

Since petty crime is caused by poverty, poverty by lack of thrift, often by lack of opportunity to place safely small savings, be it

Resolved, That this Conference, collectively and individually, endeavor to bring about the establishment of postal savings-banks such as have proved so beneficial in England and Canada.

Referred without debate to the Committee on Resolutions.

A paper by Dr. C. B. Burr, of Flint, Mich., was read (page 174).

DISCUSSION ON THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

Mr. F. B. SANBORN, Concord, Mass. — I have listened with interest and pleasure to the papers that have been read. I need hardly say that they presented little that was new to me; but I noticed in both a distinct advance in the state of mind existing in gentlemen occupying similar positions thirty-eight years ago, when I began to look into the subject of insanity. I have seen in that time a complete annihilation of certain theories in regard to the treatment of the insane that were then held almost universally. I expect to live to see the partial destruction of theories now prevalent; and it is pleasant to see that the changes now taking place are in the direction of wisdom, and are really owing to a proper care for public interests, and, what is quite as important, to the comfort and welfare of the insane.

Here, for instance, is my good friend Dr. Peterson, whom I first met some eighteen years ago as an assistant physician at the Poughkeepsie Insane Asylum, but who is now the able president of the New York State Lunacy Commission. He introduces this annual debate on one of the most serious questions of public charity with some views that would have been novel but three years ago and are still unfamiliar to many. He pronounces with much weight of authority and reason against those mixed asylums, miscalled "hospitals," where the curable and the incurable are herded together in enormous structures, objectionable as architecture, dangerous from risk of fire, and apt to be unsanitary as well as inadequate for the best classification of patients. He declares, also, for a much greater localization of the treatment of the insane than has been fashionable in New York for the past fifteen years. And in this, as well as in the other matter, he voices a tendency which is showing itself in some quarters where it was least to be expected.

On the other hand, the statements of Miss Lathrop, so admirably illustrated by her stereopticon views, have to do with a matter by no means new, but very ancient in Europe, though little considered as yet in America, — the care of the insane in private dwellings, of which Belgium and Scotland give the earliest examples, although France, in her opinion, has improved on those models in her recent experiments. It may interest the Conference to know that the European friends of this system of treatment for a large class of the insane are to hold a congress on the subject at Antwerp, from the 1st to the 7th of September next, concerning which Dr. Peeters, director of the famous colony of Gheel in Belgium, writes me thus, under date of May 18, 1902: —

> You are doubtless aware that we shall hold in September of this year an International Congress concerning the Family Care of the Insane, and I have requested the secretary to send you a programme and an invitation. I know what you have done in advocacy of this system, and I hope to see you at Antwerp. If you cannot come, you would confer a favor by sending us a report, in

English, if you choose, on the present state of Family Care in North America, and particularly in Massachusetts; and the Organizing Committee of the Congress, and all its members will thank you for it.

As it is out of my power to visit Europe this year, I shall comply with this request by sending a brief report; and I shall be glad if those who hear me will give me any facts in their possession respecting the family care of patients in their states. Specially I would ask Judge Lyon, of the Wisconsin Board of Control, to inform us of the practical result of the system of paroled patients in his state, of which I understand he is the author.

Recurring now to the general subject of this session, it remains to be said that the question broadens and becomes more pressing in its economic and sanitary aspects year by year. The comfortable delusion long cherished by certain alienists, that insanity was not increasing, and that it could be checked by early commitment to the existing hospitals, has finally given way before convincing evidence that just the opposite is true, and must be true until methods more sensible and far-reaching are adopted. This is practically the conclusion reached in New York, in Wisconsin, and in Massachusetts; and it is leading to a great modification of the traditional methods. Dr. Peterson's suggestions can be approved, so far as they go, for the betterment of the disputed situation of affairs in New York; and our Massachusetts Board of Insanity is inclined to the same policy, with the addition of a greater use of the family care or boarding out system. The Wisconsin system of State care in local asylums presents the case from another point of view, and is not only universally approved in that state, but is winning favor elsewhere.

Judge W. P. Lyon, of the Wisconsin Board of Control, was the next speaker; but at his request his remarks are omitted.

Dr. H. A. Tomlinson, St. Peter, Minn.— It is a fact in the history of all philanthropic work that progress is only abreast of public opinion. It is only possible as public opinion permits it, and the work of public institutions for the insane is no exception to this rule. Just as fast as they are demanded, the encouragement to do and the means of accomplishment provided, it will be found that our public institutions will adopt new methods, and make the necessary changes to meet new conditions as they arise. It is not fair to criticise these institutions and those at work in them, when they have neither the sympathy nor encouragement of the public which criticises them. The political prostitution of these institutions is only possible because public opinion not only allows, but condones it. If improper persons are put in charge of such institutions, and their real function subordinated so that they may be exploited for the aggrandizement of some individual or party, whose fault is it? It took the upheaval caused by the French Revolution

to make the reforms of Pinel and Tuke possible; and yet the very people who should have encouraged Pinel mobbed him instead, while Tuke was the victim of many bitter and scurrilous attacks. In this country it required the stimulus of the Civil War to make possible the progress of the last thirty years. Progress seems to stop for long periods, and then to take place by leaps and bounds. But this inactivity is only apparent. These quiescent periods are really times of incubation, during which experience in all directions is being correlated and new methods formulated. When what is now called "the psychologic moment" comes, the changes are made or the advances begun; and because, to the ordinary observer, only the result is apparent, the advance is supposed to be sudden.

I believe that Dr. Peterson and Dr. Burr, in their papers, have voiced the aspirations of every physician in charge of an institution for the care of the insane. I am sure all of them with whom I am personally acquainted have from time to time advocated, and, so far as their means and facilities would allow, have carried out just such methods as have been advocated here this evening.

With regard to the so-called psychopathic hospital, it has a function, and in our large cities will become an increasingly useful institution; but I see nothing to be gained by substituting a euphemistic designation for a fact. Calling such an institution by another name does not make it anything else than a hospital for the insane, so that this designation does not mean anything. It is merely a catchword to make the public think that something new and great is being done.

Dr. W. M. Edwards, of Kalamazoo, Mich.—Could we read forward as well as we read backward, we should not make the mistakes in public or private life that we so often make. Could Michigan have had this divine foresight, she would not have originally planned one institution in which to treat her deaf and dumb, blind and insane; nor do I think she would have planned, as she did a few years ago, to treat the feeble-minded and the epileptic in one and the same institution. Not having been gifted by this insight into the future, we must make the most of our errors and try to profit by our mistakes. No new institution for the care of the insane is now projected along the line of the monastic or corridor plan of building, but is more after the type of the colony as outlined in Dr. Peterson's paper. Among the notable examples in the effort to break away from the old order of things is the new institution for the insane at Sykesville, Md., and the Craig Colony at Sonyea. The state, however, cannot undo what she has been building for a half-century and more; and, so to do something with our older hospitals, we seek to engraft upon the established institutions some of the more modern ideas for the care of the insane.

More than fifteen years ago my predecessor, the late Dr. George

C. Palmer, successfully inaugurated the "colony" plan in connection with the Michigan Asylum for the Insane at Kalamazoo. A farm of two hundred and fifty-six acres, two and one-half miles from the parent institution, was acquired; and upon it a house was erected, intended to accommodate forty patients. In addition a large dairy barn was built, and patients were transferred, cautiously at first, but with more confidence later, until the house was filled. This experiment proved so successful that additional land was purchased until now the institution has three hundred and twenty patients colonized on two farms. Much of this land is black, rich, fertile soil, known as celery land, and is very productive. It is not the aim to grow field crops, but rather to utilize the labor of patients in gardening and in the production of such forage as tends to maintain a herd of cows. The sewage from the cottages is disposed of by what is known as the Intermittent Sub-surface System. Electricity is carried from the main institution to light all the cottages and for power to pump water into a water tower from which it is distributed to the several houses. A daily supply of such necessities as are required is transported at present by means of horses and wagons, but it is hoped before long to have communication by electric car.

In my judgment a mistake was made in building the houses too large, as it would be better to erect a colony house to accommodate from ten to twenty patients or even fewer than buildings to accommodate from forty to seventy-five. A better classification, more homelike surroundings, and more natural life can be secured in the smaller than in the larger houses. A colony situated thus near the parent institution has several things to commend it. In a crowded hospital it will always afford speedy relief, as houses can be erected and made ready for reception of patients within six months. To construct and organize a new asylum after the plans of those established in this state would require at least three or four years.

Life at the colony is better adapted to the class of patients for which it is intended than the life in the larger institutions, because it affords a greater freedom, tends to cultivate in the insane habits of self-reliance and self-control. It provides, in connection with suitable accommodations, occupation for patients who are able and willing to work. This occupation may be so organized and directed as to prove remunerative to the state as well as one of the most important aids in the treatment of the chronic insane. It affords opportunity for ready change from the parent institution to the colony and *vice versa*. This change, within certain limits, exercises a salutary influence over many patients. The individual who for any reason does not do well in the main building often is greatly benefited by a change to the colony. Occasionally one is found, however, to whom residence at the colony does not seem to be

adapted; and he is in every way much more comfortable at the parent asylum. This scheme provides the most economical plan for the increasing numbers of insane, and it reduces materially the cost of their maintenance. The productive labor of the patients is so directed that the results find ready consumption within the institution, and it is not the intention to utilize patients' labor by selling its products.

A physician resides at the colony and is ready at any time to give medical attention to any patient requiring it, besides having a general oversight and direction of the detailed affairs of the colony.

In the establishment of a colony in connection with any existing hospital for the care of the insane, I should recommend a farm not more than three miles away with ready means of access and communication, with an ample water supply, facilities for sewage disposal from the cottages, and productive land calculated for gardening or for the maintenance of a herd of cows.

Four years ago there was completed and opened at the Michigan Asylum for the Insane the first psychopathic hospital in connection with a large asylum, so far as I am aware. We do not use what Dr. Tomlinson calls the "euphemistic phrase," but simply call it the hospital. It is used for the acute cases among women. By this I mean the cases of so-called acute mental disorder, and not those suffering from bodily sickness. This hospital has forty-five beds. To it are taken all the cases that upon admission seem to be recoverable, and these are given every possible attention that may promote their comfort or ultimate restoration to their normal condition. In the treatment of these cases, massage, electricity, hydrotherapy, a special diet kitchen, skilled nursing, and careful medical attention all play an important part. It is our theory that the indigent patient is entitled to the benefits of everything that may promote relief in her case. Her health is, in fact, her chief item of capital, and she needs this, not only on her own account, but for the benefit of her children; and nothing that the state can do to hasten the return of health can be considered money unwisely spent. We supply all the nurses required, most of whom are graduates from the Asylum Training School. If a patient gets along well with the partial attention of one nurse, well and good; but, if she requires it, she is entitled to the attention of two or three or more. In this hospital is given such surgical attention as patients' conditions may require. We do not operate to cure insanity, but we operate for the relief of any cause of irritation that may reflexly or otherwise tend to the production of distressed mental states. Just at present, with forty patients in the hospital, there are fourteen nurses, there being two cases of recent operation requiring more or less constant special attention.

Dr. E. C. RUNGE, St. Louis.— I speak for myself when I say that some of our brethren of Wisconsin are not pleased with the county

system. I could tell you of one of our friends who saw, in one of the county asylums a patient working in the farm-yard; and the superintendent, not a medical man, said: "What is the matter with that man? He has been here three years. He had been a school-teacher. When he came here, he was the best company you could imagine; and now he is like a log. What did that?" It was the county asylum. It is a place of mental assassination.

QUESTION.— Are the patients in the county asylums not under medical care?

Judge LYON.— Each county asylum has a physician. The physician is not necessarily the superintendent. He is required to visit the asylum twice a week during the year, and as much oftener as called by the superintendent.

The evening was closed by an address on the "Village Care for the Insane," by Miss Julia C. Lathrop, of Chicago, illustrated by lantern slides showing cottages, care-takers, and patients in France, Belgium, and Scotland (page 185).

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

TWELFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday morning, June 3.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 9.15. The following hymn, dating from the eleventh century, was read by the Rev. Ernest Van Dyke, of St. Aloysius' Church, for the devotional exercises: —

Come, thou holy Paraclete,
And from thy celestial seat
Send thy light and brilliancy.

Father of the poor, draw near;
Giver of all gifts, be here:
Come, the soul's true radiancy.

Come, of comforters the best,
Of the soul the sweetest guest,
Come in toil refreshingly.

Thou in labor rest most sweet,
Thou art shadow from the heat,
Comfort in adversity.

Veni sancte Spiritus,
Et emitte coelitus
Lucis tuae radium.

Veni pater pauperum,
Veni dator munerum,
Veni lumen cordium.

Consolator optime,
Dulcis hospes animae,
Dulce refrigerium.

In labore requies,
In aestu temperies,
In fletu solatium.

O thou Light most pure and blest,
Shine within the inmost breast
Of thy faithful company.

O lux beatissima,
Reple cordis intima
Tuorum fidelium.

Where thou art not, man hath naught:
Every holy deed and thought
Comes from thy divinity.

Sine tuo numine,
Nihil est in homine,
Nihil est innoxium.

What is soilèd, make thou pure;
What is wounded, work its cure;
What is parchèd, fructify.

Lava quod est sordidum,
Riga quod est aridum
Sana quod est saucium.

What is rigid, gently bend;
What is frozen, warmly tend;
Strengthen what goes erringly.

Flecte quod est rigidum,
Fove quod est frigidum,
Rege quod est devium.

Fill thy faithful, who confide
In thy power to guard and guide,
With thy sevenfold mystery.

Da tuis fidelibus,
In te confidentibus,
Sacrum septenarium.

Here thy grace and virtue send;
Grant salvation in the end,
And in heaven felicity.

Da virtutis meritum,
Da salutis exitum,
Da perenne gaudium.
Amen. (Alleluia.)

Mr. A. Johnson for the Executive Committee reported the following change to be made in the Rules of the Conference: "After the word 'three' adding the words 'or more,'" allowing the election of more than three Vice-Presidents. Voted.

The Committee on Organization reported, and the report was accepted and adopted. The list of officers elected will be found on page ix.

The report from the Committee on the Finances of the Conference reported through the chairman, Mrs. E. E. Williamson, as follows: —

The committee appointed to consider the finances of the Conference respectfully submits the following report: —

For several years past it has been customary for the Conference to ask the Local Committee of the city where the Conference meets to make a contribution of about $800 for the expenses of advertising and reporting the Conference. After full consideration your committee believes that, while the localities should be invited and encouraged to assist the educational work of the Conference, the Conference itself should provide further funds for this purpose.

Your committee respectfully recommends that a sustaining membership be created at ten dollars ($10) per year, and that at least one hundred (100) such memberships be secured.

We also recommend that, in accordance with the foregoing, Rule I., paragraph 3, of the Conference, be amended to read as follows: —

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, and the sustaining membership fee shall be $10 annually. These membership fees shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

EMILY E. WILLIAMSON.
MICHEL HEYMANN.
ROBERT W. DE FOREST.
ALFRED O. CROZIER.
H. H. HART.

The PRESIDENT.— This report has been already submitted to the Executive Committee, and meets with its approval.

On motion the report was accepted and adopted.

Mr. B. Pickman Mann moved that a registration fee of one dollar should be made a condition of registration. The motion was not seconded.

Mrs. Williamson asked that the Treasurer might make a statement to the Conference on the matter of publication of the Proceedings. The President called on Mr. Crozier.

Mr. ALFRED O. CROZIER, Treasurer of the Conference.— It was thought best to make some change of this kind. When we go to a city, we do not feel like asking $800 toward the reporting and publishing of our Proceedings, putting ourselves in a mendicant attitude in asking for money which, they might think, we should furnish ourselves. I am in favor of receiving money from the locality where we meet, but not in asking it as a gift, nor for the purpose of publishing the Proceedings. I think the money we ask should be for the local expenses, such as halls, advertising, etc. Instead of asking for $800, I think it would be better to ask each locality to furnish us with three or four hundred members at $2.50 per member, to whom the Proceedings would be sent. One of the purposes of this Conference is educational, and you cannot get educational benefit unless the people become interested in it and read the Proceedings. I think this method a good one, that it will be properly received, and that it will give us just as much money and at the same time relieve us of the embarrassments of the past. We want to put our work on the right basis, so that it will occupy a dignified position. I believe the time has come when the Conference should occupy a larger place in the field of philanthropy. Discussion should be followed by action. If we here find from the wisdom and experience of the distinguished delegates in attendance that a certain line of action in

charities and correction is the most practical, why not give the world the benefit by taking definite steps to spread the gospel? If organized charity is the thing, why not undertake to organize charity, and not wait for charity to organize itself? If we need trained and intelligent workers, why not provide methods to train and instruct them and means to secure and maintain them? Why simply talk, and then leave the introduction of new and improved methods to mere chance? We need money for these purposes, and to systematically acquire and put in form for use the widest and best information on these matters. I believe generous philanthropists of means can be found who will endow this great movement and kindred matters with one million dollars.

The Treasurer was authorized to negotiate, and, if possible, induce philanthropists so disposed to establish a fund to that end.

The report was then unanimously adopted.

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln said that she hoped the Committee on Dependent Children would have something to report about the care of crippled children and their education in manual training.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn said that, as Dr. Knopf had proved that tuberculosis was following very closely after "original sin,"— original sin being supposed to include 100 per cent. of humanity, and tuberculosis 98 per cent.,— he hoped the Conference would pay still more attention to those two elements of human misfortune.

Mr. Stonaker asked that special attention might be given next year to the subject of juvenile courts, with lawyers upon the committee.

Mr. Fox called the attention of the Conference to the fact that the subject of child labor would be discussed at the next Conference.

At the suggestion of the President a unanimous vote of thanks was given to the Committee on Organization for the work it had done so satisfactorily.

The President appointed Mr. R. W. Hebberd, New York, Mr. J. R. Elder, Indiana, and Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, Alabama, an auditing committee.

The Secretary announced that the registry of attendance was larger than at any previous meeting.

The subject of the session was then taken up, the report of the Committee on Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Nursing. Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, of Boston, was invited to preside.

Mrs. Lincoln said that it was a high form of civilization which demands the services of a trained district nurse for caring for those who cannot command the services of a nurse during the entire day, and who are better treated in their homes than in the hospital. She invited Miss Harriet Fulmer, superintendent of nurses of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, to open the discussion. Miss Fulmer read a paper on "The Work of the District or Visiting Nurse" (page 200).

Mrs. Lincoln read extracts of a letter from F. M. Quaife, of New Orleans: —

> In regard to district nursing, I am not directly connected with any association, but have always taken a very deep interest in all their undertakings. I think the district nurse is just as essential, in a large community, as the private nurse. Many times poor families need the services of a nurse, when they may not alway be sick enough; or it may not be convenient, to go to a hospital. I have steadily watched the growth of district nursing in my native city (New York), and feel that a city of any size should at least support one district nurse.
>
> I have lived in the city of New Orleans for the past six years, and, to my knowledge, there is not one full-fledged district nurse in the city; and yet trained nurses are being graduated from four institutions each year. I feel it is an innovation that ought to be and must be started to keep up with our sister cities.
>
> FRANCES M. QUAIFE,
> *Superintendent Touro Infirmary, New Orleans, La.,*
> *Graduate of the New York Hospital, New York City.*

Rev. C. L. Arnold was the next speaker, but at his request his remarks are omitted.

Mrs. LINCOLN. — In many cities district nurses are in association with the city physicians.

Mrs. IZETTA GEORGE, Denver, Col. — I do not agree with those who think nursing a humble subject. The home is the moral basis of society; and, as nurses are workers in the home, we think this subject should take precedence over many others. The best thing about the nurses' association is that it treats the family as a unit. No scheme of philanthropy is adequate that does not do this. An inexperienced charity worker is apt to think that the greatest kindness she can render a sick mother is to put her into a hospital and the children into an institution. Then she can sit and fold her hands in blissful peace, her heart glowing with a self-satisfied feeling of having done her full duty and more. The visiting nurse considers such a proceeding as the last alternative. The Charity Organization Society of Denver has headquarters with the District Nurses' Association, and it sometimes seems as though the only adequate assistance we can render

in cases of need is through the work of the visiting nurse. Scarcely a day passes that the nurses do not bring to the central office several reports of suffering eased, advice given, or assistance obtained from the proper authorities.

The Denver Nurse Association is the outgrowth of the Denver Flower Mission, which had employed a nurse for ten years; and the Flower Mission is an adjunct of the Nurses' Association, and continues its beautiful work of distributing flowers to the sick in the hospitals in connection with their work. The nurses are also supplied with medicine, infants' wardrobes, surgical things, delicacies, etc.

The Denver Association supplies medicines, surgical appliances, and clothing for invalids and children. Many garments are made for it by the Church Aid Societies. The emergency fund of the Charity Organization Society provides the immediate necessities for the sick poor while they await the very deliberate action of our Poor Commissioners. The nurses always prepare the food of their patients, and often under the greatest inconveniences, such as a smoking stove, a handful of dust for fuel, the carrying of water long distances, etc. In fact, they are obliged in almost every instance to bring order out of chaos; and it is always a very different household which the nurse leaves after a week or two of service from that into which she first entered. Do you not look forward, as I do, to the time when we shall have a large corps of these home-trainers in every city? A visiting nurse is practically a home-trainer, and there is no more important mission in life. We meet our Denver nurses at all hours and in all grades of homes, usually in the poorest. Sometimes it is in a dreary basement room into which no ray of sunshine ever enters, or, maybe, in a tent to which habitation the consumptive clings as a more hopeful way of regaining health and strength. Many families live in tents in Colorado all the year; and, with the fierce rays of the sun beating down, the living, eating, and sleeping, the noise and confusion of the children, all under the one canvas, make tent life a miserable existence for many. Yet how deliciously welcome must a visiting nurse be in such a place! With her gentle ministrations, her little gift of money for ice or milk, the fresh cool linen, she brings a veritable glimpse of paradise to a dreary waste. It is often necessary for a visiting nurse to attend cases continuously for a long time, calling for half an hour or so daily. One old lady in our city, who had all her life been well and active, became suddenly helpless. Not only is she herself afflicted, she has a deformed daughter, who is dependent, and has always been upon her crutches for every step she takes; and it is with the greatest difficulty and much physical pain that the three rooms in which she and her mother live are kept clean. But they are kept so, and this crippled girl also earns several dollars a month making lace. I never look at her without feeling that it is a great

and positive wrong to give one penny to healthy, able-bodied men and women without demanding a full return in service or in some sort of equivalent. Another old lady whom I have in mind lives in our worst slum, but the worst is not so very bad in Denver. This woman is sixty years of age. She has an imbecile son, thirty-five. There being no home for the feeble-minded in Colorado, these two, the mother dreadfully crippled with rheumatism and the son in worse condition, lived unattended for many years. Their rooms were very dirty, their food and fuel scant; but the small pension received by the mother, as the widow of an old soldier, paid their rent. "We paid that," said the poor old soul, "so that we could remain together."

Finally, they fell into the hands of a visiting nurse and a friendly visitor; and you can imagine the consequent change and comfort. The health of the mother is so greatly improved she can do her housework with ease. These are but two of several hundred cases which come under the observation of the speaker and under the care of Denver's visiting nurses during a year.

Miss MARY E. SMITH.— To-day the question of visiting or district nursing is one of vital importance in every city, because it has become an educational force. The nurses reach the people during sickness, and so have the best opportunity of forcing home lessons in hygiene and right living that no amount of teaching or talking to, under other circumstances, could induce them to heed. Florence Nightingale says, "I do not think there is any human being who may be as useful as a district nurse, if she is helpful without being interfering." Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, says, "The Visiting Nurse Association has always seemed to me to be free from some of the faults often found in organized philanthropic effort and to be managed with wisdom and care." Just here I wish to emphasize the fact that the work of these associations through their nurses tends to the preservation of the home, lessens the necessity of institutional enlargement, caring for cases that for various reasons cannot or will not be cared for in hospitals or county institutions, and in a measure thereby prevents crime and pauperism.

The older associations have proved beyond the shadow of a doubt not only the wisdom, but I would add the necessity, of employing only graduates from our best training schools. Tact, courtesy, and refinement are as necessary to the visiting nurse as the more or less mechanical skill she has acquired in the performance of routine duties in the sick-room, if she is to meet and overcome successfully the ignorance, prejudices, and superstitions of patients and their friends. Having proved by experience that the best are none too good for this peculiar work, it is imperative that we who have assumed the responsibility of directing the affairs of such an organization shall put forth our best efforts to secure only such women for the active work as shall come up to the high standards we have raised.

Vacancies are constantly occurring on the working staff of every visiting nurse association, and many times these are most difficult to fill quickly and well. How best to meet these emergencies is a problem each board must solve either systematically or as best it can when these occasions arise. It will be generally admitted that it will be best done if done systematically. I therefore suggest that each association, as soon after organization as possible, shall employ a trained supeintendent of nurses, with an office located in the same building as the central offices of all the charity organizations of the city; and, further, that the board, through this superintendent, offer the officials of one or more regular hospital training schools in the same place the privilege of training a limited number of their senior students in the district work. This supply would be constant and would have its economic advantages, as well as be the means of securing a larger number of specially trained women to select from in the future. This plan would not interfere with accepting graduates for a similar course if any desire to take it.

The Detroit Visiting Nurse Association is a comparatively young organization, its fourth annual report having just been issued. The members of the executive board feel that, while the work has increased rapidly, the growth has been natural; and they have been able to meet the new conditions satisfactorily. An especial interest is taken in the home life of the nurses; and the board feels that the high standard of work maintained by them, their increased zeal, and fine *esprit de corps* are due almost as much to this feature as to their high sense of professional responsibility. Perhaps the most distinctive thing that has been done has been to send one of the nurses, each year, at the expense of the association, for a month's observation and inspiration into the district work of another city. Last year the time was spent in the nursing settlement of New York under Miss Wald; this year it has been in Chicago under Miss Fulmer. From both places they have returned filled with enthusiasm over the different phases of the work they have had the opportunity of studying. This experience has not only widened their horizons, but has been a direct benefit to the patients and to the board, whose interests are better served by their greater knowledge of present conditions and by the larger understanding they have gained of possible development in this wonderful charity. So convinced are we of the triple benefit derived from this course that, on behalf of our executive board, I would say that we will be only too glad to offer the same courtesy to others desirous of studying our methods that has been so generously extended to us by the workers in New York and Chicago.

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago.— My friend Mr. Johnson, has reminded me that about eighteen years ago a devoted nurse, one of the most devoted in the country, Margaret Etta, went up and down the city, devoting herself to this work. And there is now a

Margaret Etta crèche. The work of this crèche, since she died in 1885, has been a monument to the pioneer work she did in district nursing in Chicago.

In that city where that district nursing association is, and where there are twelve or more trained nurses and all the untrained emergency nurses necessary to help out, the co-operation which the preceeding paper has spoken of is very well put into practice. We have in one building ten charitable societies, of which the visiting nursing association is one of the chief. In the district offices of the associated charities, of which there are eleven scattered throughout the city, the visiting nurses who also have districts come and go. The headquarters of one society are not the headquarters of another, but the visitors come constantly to the officers of the associated charities. We have district committees which meet every week to discuss what should be done for this family and for that. The visiting nurse of that particular part of the city is a member of the advisory committee of the associated charities, and so the work of the visiting nurse becomes intimately bound up with the work of the other charities throughout the city. The result is that the Visiting Nurses' Association is overworked, because everybody knows about it and has confidence in it. They have all the nurses that they can afford with the means at their command; and I have no doubt that they cannot do all the work that they might do, because, the more they are known, the more people want them to do still more. Speaking from close observation of one great nurses' visiting association, I should say that the work of the visiting worker in a large community, and also in a similar degree and in the same spirit in a smaller community, is one of the most important, most helpful, and most thoroughly to be commended from every standpoint that I have seen. The fact has been mentioned that the visiting nurse deals with the kind of cases that cannot be taken into hospitals. The difficulties of all sorts that she has to encounter are indescribable. I could not describe them if I would, and I would not if I could. The conditions of brightness, good food, etc., that the hospitals with all their shortcomings furnish, are not found in the homes. The visiting nurse has not only to grapple with the disease and its treatment, but with the causes, with a thousand things which do not belong to her as a trained nurse. She has to know everything possible about sanitation and food, and her work to be what it is and what it should be demands the highest order of talent and devotion. I do not know any instance of any work in which greater devotion has been shown.

Mrs. STREETER, Concord, N.H.— I am very glad of this opportunity to add my word of commendation to Miss Fulmer's valuable paper, and also to give my testimony to the value of the visiting nurses' association. You may be interested in the work of the visiting nurse in a small city. There can hardly be a greater contrast be-

tween Chicago with its expenditure of $17,000 and the treatment of 5,000 cases and the little town of Concord, N.H., where our total expenses were $1,365, and where our population is less than 20,000: 2,177 calls were made, but I venture to say that the amount of suffering relieved was just as large in proportion as in the great city of Chicago.

We have no charity organization society. Three years ago we called a meeting of the representatives of every church. It was done with fear and trembling and with many doubts of its success. We have an executive committee of seven. Then we have an advisory board in which every church and charitable organization in the town is represented. Upon this board devolves the work of providing the sinews of war. We also call upon them when we want their advice. We thought that we must have the very best possible nurse. We succeeded in finding one at the Waltham Training School, where district nursing is a part of the training. This young woman came, full of enthusiasm and of great capacity; and her ministrations and work are wonderfully successful. Her influence about town was an example to us all. At the end of the first year the work had grown so that it became necessary to have another nurse. We had two training schools, one at the general hospital and the other at the New Hampshire Training School for the Insane. We felt that, if we could give these nurses a little training, it would be valuable to them and also for us. So we sent to the superintendent of the state hospital, and proposed that he give each one of his senior nurses a six weeks' course in district nursing. That plan has been put into operation for a year and a half, and it has been an unqualified success. The nurses are taken from the senior class in the training school. They live at the state hospital, and go back there twice a week; but in district nursing they are under the supervision of our head nurse. When they begin their training, our head nurse for the first few days makes every call with them: after that she supervises their work. They have the greatest enthusiasm in their work. The superintendent thinks that it is one of the very best things that has happened to his nurses. They have learned to make the best with what they have; and they have had experience in general cases, which, of course, they did not get in a hospital for the insane. At the end of our second year we found that we still needed another one. We have had two pupil nurses from the state hospital. We decided that we would charge a small fee. Our nurse makes a charge of from five to fifty cents a visit to those that can pay, but our rules are that in no case is she to neglect a charity case for the paid case. The amount received was only $198, but we reach a class that we would not otherwise reach at all.

QUESTION.— Do you pay the pupil nurses?

Mrs. STREETER.— We pay the pupil nurses just what they are paid at the state hospital. The superintendent gives them board and a home: we pay them only $4 a month.

Miss FULMER.— Dr. Arnold has said that the policy of the district nurses is not to criticise the work of the medical profession among the poor. I must say that the noblest and best work done in a medical way in Chicago is done with the county physicians. The last speaker has advocated the use of pupil nurses. That is giving to the homes of the poor untrained service. They are using those poor people for experimental work, for the training of nurses; and that should not be the policy of any well-organized society. In Chicago we insist upon giving to the poor in their homes not less good care than the rich may provide for themselves. No rich family is going to employ a pupil nurse: why should the poor have it for theirs?

In answer to a frequent question as to how we would start this visiting work in any new locality, I think we have no special plan for doing this. In Columbus, Ohio, where it was started some years ago, one of our own nurses was instrumental in doing this. The whole district was billed and posted, announcing a meeting about this work. Every organization in the city likely to be interested was invited. There came a ready response. Inside of three days an organization of four nurses was started in Columbus by this simple presentation of the work.

A paper on "The Almshouse Hospital" was read by Mrs. Alice N. L. Lincoln (page 212).

DISCUSSION ON ALMSHOUSE HOSPITALS.

Mr. F. B. SANBORN, Concord, Mass.—Time is our great enemy; but there is one advantage which Time brings us, in increasing age, that we can look back and see how much worse things were many years ago than now. I can very distinctly remember when the idea of a pauper hospital, such as Mrs. Lincoln describes, and such as she has done so much to create in Massachusetts, did not exist even in the mind of the people in that state. A few persons had the idea; but, if the idea had been presented to the people of Massachusetts or even to the physicians of Massachusetts as a body, forty years ago, as it has been presented here, with your evident approval, it would have been received with incredulity and repugnance. Those of us who did believe that something should be done to improve the very sad condition of things in our pauper institutions can testify to that. The pauper hospitals were theatres of infant mortality to an extent that would be almost incredible, and most diseases were very imperfectly treated. There were very few good nurses. The physicians in the almshouse hospitals may have been appointed originally for excellence; but, when I came to be acquainted with them, time had operated on them, and they were old-fashioned and no longer useful, or else young and untried and incapable of carrying

on properly the medical work of a hospital, with perhaps one exception in the four hospitals. Now, and for perhaps ten years past, I have been in the habit of saying that the one almshouse hospital which remains, at Tewksbury, is the best I have ever seen. The principle which Mrs. Lincoln lays down has been acted on for ten years in Massachusetts in that Tewksbury hospital; for it is no longer called an almshouse, but a state hospital. It is not a mere vestibule to death and vice, but an admirable hospital

In medicine, as in many other things, the great vice is exclusion. If you begin by exclusion, there is no knowing where you will stop. The peculiarity of the Tewksbury hospital is that it cannot exclude any class of patients. The general hospitals exclude certain diseases, and most hospitals receive only certain kinds of patients; but the state hospital excludes no one. It has been obliged to receive all kinds for the thirty-eight years that I have known it, has received every disease which ever appeared in Massachusetts, not excepting leprosy; for we have had several cases of leprosy there. If you will consider what that signifies to the medical profession and the training of nurses, you will see how important it is that their training should go on where no disease is excluded. Insanity is treated there, in separate buildings, to be sure; but, when the patients become ill with other diseases, they are transferred to the general hospital. I think we now treat between two and three thousand patients yearly in this hospital. You can see what an opportunity for the study of nursing that gives.

I will digress, to speak of an interesting subject wherein a long memory enables me to narrate a fact exceedingly curious, but little known. District nursing had its origin and inception entirely with one person, Miss Florence Nightingale. It did not exist before her time; nor would it have existed, if she had not been precisely the person she was. She is still living, an old lady, as you know, and has never visited this country. But, at a critical moment in her life, when she was deciding what she should do with her future, she consulted an American, my old friend Dr. S. G. Howe, who was in England at that time; and, apparently guided by his opinion, she went to Germany, and took the training which qualified her for nursing, and which enabled her to make that great impression on the British nation. Mrs. Howe, who is still living, refreshed my mind about this story not long ago. In 1843 she and her husband were visiting in England, and were invited to a country house where Miss Nightingale was also visiting a relative of their hostess,—Dr. Howe was an early riser; and, while the other guests were preparing for breakfast, the doctor had the habit of going into the garden of this country house strolling about and meditating. Miss Nightingale seems to have had the same custom; for, as Dr. Howe was walking along the alleys one morning, she met him, and introduced her subject. She said, "Dr. Howe, you have had a good deal of expe-

rience,"— she knew his remarkable career,— "and I would like to ask you whether you think it is incompatible with my position as an English lady to learn the profession of nursing?" Dr. Howe said: "By no means incompatible. There is no reason in the world why you should derogate from your position by learning the business of caring for the sick and unfortunate. It is the noblest work that any one can do, and no one is better qualified for it than an English lady." She appeared relieved in her mind, because, it seems, her relatives had been telling her it was out of the question for her to undertake such a work. Soon afterward she did go to Germany, and qualified herself; and, when the Crimean War came on, nearly ten years later, she became illustrious therein. And from that time hospital nursing and district nursing have gone on everywhere. So that New England, even Boston, may claim some share in setting Florence Nightingale on her providential course.

Another old fact might be mentioned to show how things established without any forethought of the future may lead to important results. In 1865, finding that our almshouse hospitals were not all they should be,— we also thought it often a great hardship to have very sick persons transported from distant parts of Massachusetts to the hospitals,— a law was passed providing for the care of certain persons, those with contagious diseases, or who for any other reason could not well be removed in their own towns and even their own homes. This began at first very moderately, but presently, on a larger scale, this system of medical outdoor relief was carried on by the state; and out of it has grown, in one way and another, the interest now taken in Massachusetts in this business of district nursing.

When our committee was discussing the matter of concentrating the supervision of charities in a single board for a whole state, I was reminded of this fact. Out of the comparison, the friction, and even the conflict, of two of our boards in Massachusetts, a better system has been produced than can be expected of the best men and women you can find if put on a single board. It is only by comparison of views that you can reach the best administration of charity in any branch. I am therefore fundamentally opposed to the concentration of power in a single board. Better too many boards than too few.

Dr. ROBERT W. HILL, New York.— There has been a special development of the almshouse hospital outside of the great cities. This development is of interest as an illustration of the tendency of the times. We have reason to expect that in large cities all public charities will keep pace with modern ideas, for in the cities large funds are available for use in improvement. Even when people are slow to tax themselves, philanthropists are to be found ready to supplement public efforts with their private benefactions. Hence we may reasonably expect all large cities to follow the lead of New York, Buffalo, and Boston in equipping the public hospitals thoroughly for

efficient work in the care of the sick poor. Outside of the great cities, however, the people are compelled to depend entirely upon public funds for all improvements, and progress is slower. In spite of this we find in the rural districts of the State of New York, where the almshouses are comparatively small, that the necessity of a hospital in a separate building, as a part of the almshouse group, is being generally recognized. About 30 per cent. of all the almshouses in the state have now a separate well-equipped hospital for the care of the sick. Within the past three years the movement for these almshouse hospitals has made rapid progress. In a number of the smaller counties, where the total number of inmates seldom reaches one hundred, the supervisors have made provision of this kind. In all the new almshouses lately erected, the special care of the sick has been provided for; and these small hospitals have been put in charge of trained nurses, under the supervision of the physicians who regularly visit the institutions and minister to the sick. The same tendency has shown itself in the second-class cities; for Albany, Utica, and Syracuse have added hospitals to their relief agencies for the sick poor. Their almshouses have equipped within a year new and commodious buildings for the exclusive use of the sick among the inmates. They have the conveniences, the attendants, the sanitary arrangements, and the space essential to the proper care of the sick. Above all, these hospitals assure the desirable and necessary separation of the sick and helpless from the ordinary inmates of the almshouse.

Under the system now so rapidly passing away, the sick were cared for in the general dormitories of the almshouse, to the great discomfort of all. The patients were more or less neglected because compelled to depend upon the ordinary attendants and other inmates. The atmosphere was poisoned with foul odors, and disease thrived in consequence among all the inmates. Under this new system more humane treatment is given to the sick. The attendants are trained, and have no other duties than those connected with the hospital. The patients are never left dependent upon inmates for the little attentions which are so grateful to the sick. The wards are ventilated; and the whole atmosphere is that of a true hospital, where the one consideration is the proper care of the sick. I have said that the small almshouse hospital in the rural districts marks the present tendency, and there is no doubt this movement will continue until every almshouse is properly equipped to take care of the sick; for behind this tendency is a sense of public responsibility which will not be satisfied with anything short of humane methods and ample provision for the care of this and other classes of public dependants. The cities may lead, but the rural districts must follow. The public conscience is awake and responsive to all the proper demands of humanitarians, and nowhere is it to-day so thoroughly responsive as in the great State of New York.

Mr. C. L. STONAKER, Colorado.— The almshouse idea will be pretty well ventilated at the next Conference. I am strongly of the idea that the almshouse should be improved. The old idea should be abandoned, and it should become in every community a hospital for the care of the sick. The almshouse should no longer be simply a place for the segregation of any class that we do not like to have about us.

Mrs. Lincoln thanked all who had taken part in the discussion, and the Conference adjourned at 12 M.

LAST GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday night, June 3.

The last session of the Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Reed Stuart, pastor of the Unitarian society of Detroit. After the singing of a solo from the "Messiah," "Come unto me, all ye that are heavy laden," the report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal, by Judge John W. Willis, of St. Paul, was read in his absence by Mr. James Leonard, of Mansfield, Ohio, a member of the committee (page 315.)

The following resolutions were read by Mr. A. W. Butler, of the Committee on Resolutions: —

Resolved, That this Conference renews the hope expressed at the Washington Conference last year that the new United States prison at Atlanta, Ga., may be organized and administered in accordance with reformatory principles, and that character and fitness only shall be considered in the appointment of officers.

The Secretary is directed to transmit a copy of this resolution to the President of the United States.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Conference be voted to Rt. Rev. John Lancaster Spaulding, of Peoria, Ill., for his powerful Conference sermon, presenting so fully, clearly, and forcefully existing anti-social conditions, their causes and recognized means of prevention.

At the close of this most successful Conference in this beautiful city it is fitting that we should formally record our appreciation and express our gratitude for the favors we have received and the hospitality we have enjoyed.

Therefore be it *Resolved*, That the thanks of the Conference are hereby tendered to his Excellency the Governor of Michigan and to his Honor the Mayor of Detroit for the cordial welcome accorded us by each; to the excellent local committees, including the ladies' auxiliary committees and the organizations they represent, and particularly Mrs. Stephen Baldwin, their efficient chairman, for such

complete arrangements for the proper work of the Conference and for provision in many ways for our entertainment; to those persons who have favored us with such excellent and appropriate music; to the pastor and officers of the Central Methodist Church for the use of its building as a place of meeting; to the Wayne County Home and Asylum, the Detroit House of Correction, the Insane Asylum at Pontiac, the Children's Free Hospital, the Detroit Police Commissioners, and to all other local institutions for their hospitality; to the railroads for special rates, the hotels, the press, the high school band, the faithful ushers, and to all organizations and individuals who have contributed to the success of this meeting and to our personal pleasure.

F. B. SANBORN.— It has not been my good fortune to be present at all the sessions of this Conference, but I can heartily subscribe to all that has been said in the resolution of thanks. I am much struck with the progress of Detroit since our Second Conference was held here in 1875. This progress is seen not only in its material aspects, which are visible to every eye, but in the extension of the civilizing influences which must go forth from any modern city which lives according to the principles of Christianity and civilization.

I have been particularly impressed during this Conference with the new subjects and novel mode of presenting them exhibited here, and I want to express my particular obligation to the Detroit lady who spoke this morning on the interesting subject of district nursing. I think Detroit, the Conference, and all of us have reason to be proud of a city which can establish an institution so interesting and have its scheme of action presented with so much simplicity and force, and so much to the mental and moral approval of her hearers. I move that the resolution be adopted.

Dr. GILMOUR, Toronto, Can.— I voice the sentiments of my fellow-countrymen when I speak in support of this resolution. I have been particularly touched by the cordial reception, the kindly treatment, and the generous support and sympathy which this Conference has had from the citizens of Detroit. This is more than encouraging to all sociological workers, and I hope that in return they may receive some benefit from the work of the Conference. The citizens of Detroit have exemplified in a very practical and delightful manner the saying, "Blessed are the happiness-makers," they represent the grandest forces of civilization.

Mr. C. L. STONAKER, Denver, Col.— We came here to invite the Conference into the West, where we feel that we have many new problems to solve, and we need your inspiration and counsel. But it was decided to go in another direction,— a decision which we have accepted. But we in the West, with all our new life, feel like confessing that it is good, after all, to come down into the East, for this is "God's country"; and we thank you for the reception you have given us here.

Mrs. KINNEY, of Michigan, said that she wished on behalf of the

women of the conference to thank the men and women of Detroit for their courtesy.

Miss JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.— How much we have enjoyed this beautiful city and the noble friends we have met here! Yet it seems to me you do not deserve so much gratitude for being good, since I do not see how any one can live in such a beautiful city and not do right. However, we are all very grateful, especially that you are coming South. We need you there more than any other section can. I could not help thinking, when I heard the last paper describing what jails and prisons should be, "colleges of ethics," what a contrast I see every Sunday of my life in Alabama! If you could go into our county jails and see some one trying to give a lesson to men who seem not much above oxen in comprehension, and absolutely knowing nothing about the three R's, you would see how kind you are to come to Atlanta, and how much we thank you for that resolution.

Secretary BYERS.— I am not satisfied merely to stand up here to make announcements, read notices, and to vote for resolutions. I wish that the English language were stronger, that it might better express the feelings of the Conference, and especially of the General Secretary on this occasion. I have made frequent trips to Detroit in preparation for this meeting, and therefore know better than most of you the devotion, the hard work, the self-sacrifice, of the people of Detroit, especially of those whose names appear on the list of committees; and I want them to know that we put into this vote something more than mere formal thanks. I am sure our hearts go with the resolution.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.— I do not want to question what the lady from Alabama has said, that such beautiful surroundings must make good people. I should only say how could they help having beautiful surroundings when they are such good people!

The resolution of thanks was then adopted by a rising vote.

Mr. Butler, of the Committee on Resolutions, reported that the committee recommended that the resolution offered in regard to postal savings-banks be referred to the next Conference.

The Auditing Committee reported that the books of the Treasurer had been examined, and found correct.

DISCUSSION ON THE TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL.

General R. A. BRINKERHOFF.— The paper which has been read brings the ideas of modern penology up to date, for I think I may safely say that those ideas are now accepted by all the leading penologists of America. Little is said in this paper in regard to methods. It deals with ideas and principles. In practical methods

we are behind Great Britain and perhaps some Continental countries: in some we are in advance, as in dealing with young men and juveniles. I do not think any country is in advance of us in that respect. In some of our penitentiaries we have the so-called indeterminate sentence in practice, even in old-fashioned penitentiaries, as in Ohio. The result in that state shows that, out of the hundreds of men who have been paroled, less than 10 per cent. relapsed. In the reformatories of Ohio and in Elmira, N.Y., the indeterminate sentence is no longer an experiment. It has succeeded where the administration has been good. A political administration which comes and goes interferes with the proper parole of prisoners.

There are ways in which we can aid the administration of prisons. One is in the post-penitentiary treatment of prisoners. We lose the full value of wise treatment in prison if we fail to look after the men when they leave. In Ohio we have no post-penitentiary treatment of prisoners. In this beautiful city of Detroit you have had a good example of such treatment in the home established by Mrs. Agnes D'Arcambal, one of the noblest women that ever lived. In New York and in Massachusetts ex-convicts are looked after to a certain extent. Great Britain has a prisoners' aid association connected with its prisons. They are voluntary associations, supported in part by the government.

The best way to help our prisoners and to reduce the number of prisoners is to begin with the children. Statistics show that children who have been properly trained, beginning with the kindergarten, furnish a very small per cent. of the criminals in any prison.

The PRESIDENT.— Whenever I think of Detroit or hear it named, three personages flash through my mind. Over thirty years ago our dear friend Brockway, who was then engaged in work here, came to Indiana, and assisted us in talking to our legislature upon prison management. We were in a wretched condition there. We got the legislature to come and hear his address. Mr. Brockway is one of those three personalities. Joseph Nicholson, one of our leading men in the National Prison Congress, is another; and this dear woman, to whom reference has been made, is the third. She was an inspiration when you met her. She set an example to us all. Many of the states now employ agents to look after discharged prisoners; but some one has to lead, as Agnes D'Arcambal did. Those two being dead yet speak.

Mr. HUGH F. FOX asked that Mr. S. J. Barrows might speak as an expert penologist.

Mr. S. J. BARROWS, New York.— We who are engaged in prison work need in meeting these problems of penology the same spirit that has been illustrated in this Conference,— the spirit of steady in-

vestigation, the pursuit of truth, the spirit which is willing to put away the old and try new methods, and pursue them with enthusiasm and courage. Such a spirit was evident in the excellent paper of Mr. McDougal, of Orange, N.J., a spirit of perfect fearlessness in seeking and presenting results. The National Prison Congress deals in detail with many of these questions which cannot be dealt with here; but it is important that this Conference should see the relationship which the problems of penology bear to all the other questions which have been discussed here. There is hardly any problem discussed in this Conference which does not have some relation to the problems of crime or the treatment of the criminal. The questions of sanitation, environment, education, and personal influence, all have an immediate bearing. You had Dr. Knopf to discuss the question of tuberculosis in relation to the poor. We had him to discuss the same question with reference to the prisoner; and one of the best papers on that subject is his report on "Tuberculosis in Prisons" in the Report of the Prison Association of New York for 1900. You have discussed the question of model tenements: we have got to discuss the model prison. The Prison Association of New York has taken up the subject, and referred it to a special committee to see what can be done to improve the physical structure of prisons. The whole spirit of this Conference is curative, not punitive. Even where the subject of punishment has been discussed, it has been with reference to its correctional rather than its punitive character. So, if we can take up and apply in this spirit the curative method as it has been brought out so forcibly in the close of this paper, we shall have made a great gain. We shall see, too, that all these efforts that we are making to get sunlight and fresh air for the poor must be made also for the prisoner if we are to improve his physical as well as his moral condition.

Then there is the question of prison labor. I visited the Detroit House of Correction, and was much gratified to find that the men and women there were kept at work, earning something for the city and also for themselves. They are not obliged to sit in idleness because the legislature has passed a law compelling them to. It is very satisfactory to find here in Detroit that you have so largely solved the problem of employing profitably thirty-day men, and that, under the new rules adopted, even the short-sentenced man may have a share in his earnings. The Detroit House of Correction has even improved on conditions outside, for men and women are paid at the same rate.

Reference has been made to the noble woman whose picture is before us, Mrs. D'Arcambal. I am glad that the people of Detroit are carrying out her work in the right way. They are seeking not merely to perpetuate the building she built and the methods she adopted, but are adjusting themselves to new conditions created by new laws. They are trying to put their Prison Association in line

with modern methods, thus making it more effective to meet modern conditions.

It is very significant that a judge of the United States, one whose mission it is to administer the law, should have appealed to us in this report to use sweetness and light in the highest altruism for the redemption of the prisoner. When we can introduce the gospel into the law in that way, and have the judges as ministers to bring about its fulfilment, we may feel that our cause at last has made some progress.

Mr. SANBORN.— There is one point in which I agree with General Brinkerhoff. We are inferior in certain points to prison management in Europe. In the matter of reformatory prisons, America leads the world; and this is acknowledged in those centres of intelligence of Europe, where attention is paid to the principles of prison discipline as illustrated and enforced by the best of practice. I was perhaps one of the first in time to introduce the people of Massachusetts to a knowledge of the Irish system, which was established in 1863–64. It had many merits, but the present system of American reformatories is an improvement on the best period of the Irish system. The general principles are the same; but it is more complete, more comprehensive, and more thoroughly administered here. The general principles upon which Mr. Brockway and others have founded this beautiful edifice of prison science were stated by that great reformer, Captain Mackonochie, a naval officer whose mission it was to teach the English nation and the American nation that the business of managing prisoners was not a military business. He laid down the great principle which every prison reformer must accept. Military life deals with men in masses; but, to reform men, the treatment must be individual. With this germinal idea he laid down a system of prison management which was the germ of the Irish and American systems. I therefore beg this audience to remember that the name of Mackonochie is entitled to the credit of planting the seed from which this great tree has sprung.

Bishop FALLOWS, Chicago.— I wish to bear testimony in accord with General Brinkerhoff's as to the good work which has been done by the parole system, especially in the Reformatory of Illinois, the second largest in the United States. Modelled on the basis of the Elmira Reformatory, we have, of course, some additions and improvements, otherwise we should not be worthy of being a reformatory, coming into existence fifteen years after the reformatory at Elmira was organized. The principles that underlie the statements in the paper just read are the principles we are endeavoring to put into practice. During the ten years of the existence of our institution about four thousand young men have been sent out on parole. The board of managers and the officers of the institution have kept track of these young men, and I can safely say that fully

85 per cent. of those boys have been restored to society as respectable citizens. I have had personal intercourse with the parents or immediate friends of nearly two thousand of our young inmates. The city of Chicago furnishes from 40 to 45 per cent. of the inmates. I throw open my house, not only on week-days and week-nights, but on Sundays between services, to the parents and immediate friends of these boys, and I have heard in detail, I might say, the stories of almost all of those two thousand boys, so that I can safely aver that the work of reformation has been grandly accomplished; and I am tenfold more of an optimist, if that were possible, with regard to the reformation of young men than I was ten years ago, when placed in the position of president of the board of managers of that institution. I have perfect faith in God. I have full faith in humanity. I have faith in the remedial agencies employed for the reformation of this unfortunate class, and so to-day I am more full of hope and courage and confidence and enthusiasm than when I began the work.

With respect to our state prisons the indeterminate sentence or parole law has been applied to them; and the wardens say that not more than 10 per cent. of the men who are paroled have given them any farther trouble, so that, so far as Illinois is concerned, they are fully justified by the results which have been produced.

Rev. S. J. Barrows, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, was asked to speak upon probation.

S. J. BARROWS, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York.— Before speaking of probation, allow me to refer to another but related matter. Last evening my friend, Dr. Rosebrugh, of Toronto, was to explain what they are trying to do there, in the way of introducing probation, with reference to the right treatment of drunkards; but at the close of the session here it was too late to take up that subject. I have been asked by Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh to state that the people of Toronto have become extremely interested in the subject of probation for inebriates, and they are trying to get a law to have it applied to inebriates in their homes; and we shall watch that experiment with much interest.*

*The suggestions of Dr. Rosebrugh, which there was no opportunity to present to the Conference, are as follows, as printed in the *Canadian Journal of Medicine and Surgery*, May, 1898: —

"In January last I was commissioned by the Prisoners' Aid Association of Canada to make a tour of inebriate hospitals, and interview specialists in inebriety, with a view of formulating a practical scheme to be submitted to the Ontario government, covering the entire question of the treatment of inebriates in the Province. This commission has been executed, and my formulated scheme has been presented to the association aforesaid; but its consideration has not as yet been taken up. My recommendations, in brief, are as follows: —

"1. The appointment by the Lieutenant Governor in Council of an inspector of inebriate institutions. This inspector should be a qualified medical practitioner, who has made the medical treatment of inebriety a special study.

"2. The inspector should organize in the city of Toronto a hospital for the medical treatment of pauper male inebriates of the more hopeful class, and in other cities of the Province an inebriate department in the existing general hospitals, more especially for pauper male inebriates.

General BRINKERHOFF.— In Massachusetts, out of 5,676 persons put on probation in ten years, only 10 per cent. were not reclaimed. The prisons and jails have been reduced in population. I saw in Great Britain some jails almost empty.

Mr. A. O. CROZIER, Michigan.— Nineteen years ago I was present at a great meeting in Essex Hall, London, with lords of high degree in attendance, and where the presiding officer was a marquis; and they were raising a fund for sending the undesirable element of the population to America. Possibly the emptiness of the jails may be due to some such cause. The same thing is true in other countries, and accounts for some of the immigration we receive. America is supposed to be an attractive country for such people. I am making no attack upon the probation system or the parole system. One of the most instructive papers I ever heard was at the Topeka session by Governor Stanley upon the parole system. He read twenty or thirty letters from different prisoners whom he had paroled, from the friends of those prisoners, and from the agents of the state as to the conduct of those men when on parole, and in almost every case the result was satisfactory. I think the parole system is a very good one. So far as the indeterminate sentence is concerned, I have not given it special study.

President NICHOLSON.— The indeterminate sentence is all right.

Mr. CROZIER.— If you say so, I will say so, too. But I wish to express no opinion about it because, without any knowledge back of it, there is a little sentiment that to put a man in jail and leave him there, with no authority to judge of his conduct, isn't the thing. Perhaps, if the right man were administering the jail, and that man were properly supervised, it might be a success.

Mr. HUGH F. FOX.— I will see that Mr. Crozier is supplied with literature on this subject.

A MEMBER.— I would like to know the ages of the inmates of the Pontiac institution.

Bishop FALLOWS.— Children from ten to sixteen and young men from sixteen to thirty-five.

"3. An industrial reformatory should be established on the farm colony plan for the custody of the more hopeless or incorrigible class of male drunkards, and where they should be detained on indeterminate sentences.

"4. Pending the opening of an inebriate hospital in Toronto, it would be both humane and in the interests of prison reform to give special medical treatment to the dipsomaniac inmates of the Central Prison.

"5. For the more hopeful class of female inebriates, cottage homes (or utilizing existing homes) are recommended for special medical treatment.

"6. For the incorrigible class of female drunkards, full two-year sentences to the Mercer Reformatory for Women are recommended.

"7. In the adoption of scientific medical treatment the Norman Kerr-Crothers system or general plan of treatment is recommended. In the interests of science and good morals proprietary remedies should not be used.

"8. The adoption of the 'probation system' for giving a helping hand to patients subsequent to treatment for inebriety.

"The Ontario Medical Association has also asked the Ontario government to make provision for the custodial treatment of epileptics. Question: Might it not be both a wise and an economical arrangement to provide a large farm colony for both classes under one management, the epileptics and the inebriates being provided for on the same or on an adjoining farm colony? Many of the inebriates could be utilized as farm helps, nurses, guards, etc., on the farm colony for epileptics."

S. J. Barrows.— I hope that Mr. Crozier will study the indeterminate sentence before November next, because he will have to vote upon that question, as to whether the legislature shall have the power to pass the indeterminate sentence in Michigan. If the men of this state vote in favor of that measure, you will have constitutional power to pass such a law.

Mr. L. L. Barbour, Detroit.— We had the indeterminate sentence here, and it was working very well; but we had some peculiar members of the Supreme Court at that time, and it was decided that the indeterminate sentence was unconstitutional. I am very glad that the question has come up again; and, if that passes, it will fix the Supreme Court.

The President said that the time for farewell words had come, and read the following letter from the Mayor of Detroit:—

June 2, 1902.

Timothy Nicholson, Esq., Detroit, Mich.:

My dear Mr. Nicholson,— A call from the city and my absence over to-morrow will deny me the very great privilege and pleasure of being in attendance upon the last session of the Conference of Charities and Correction. It was my privilege to be present at the opening Conference, and to say a few words of greeting and welcome to the ladies and gentlemen of the Conference who honored us with their presence. I said at that time that we would benefit by your coming. That expectation has now become a fact. By the wealth of information and helpful suggestions made in Conference, we have been benefited; and this whole community has participated and will profit hereafter by the splendid discussions to which we have been in person or through the press admitted. And now the time has come when you must go away. It is the old story of parting. It is the mournful fact in all this world's experience that, while we have joy in meeting, there comes the mournfulness of parting. We must find our comfort in saying to you, Come again, come soon, come often, come when you will; and your welcome will be no less cordial than it has been upon this most pleasant occasion. To yourself and to the ladies and gentlemen associated with you in your noble undertaking, I send you the hearty felicitations of this community, coupled with my own, and wish you God-speed in your journey.

Mrs. Kinney.— Before we separate, I want to ask the members of this Conference to use their influence to establish in every state reformatory prisons for women.

Mrs. Lincoln, of Boston, moved a vote of thanks to the President, Mr. Timothy Nicholson, and the Secretary, Mr. J. P. Byers. Mr. Frank Sanborn seconded it, and the motion was adopted by acclamation.

William Howard Neff, Esq.— Fifty-five years ago I visited Detroit. Then there was not a railroad in Michigan and but one in Ohio. Detroit had no parks, no public squares, no public buildings, but was a straggling town along the lake shore of probably ten or twelve thousand inhabitants. There was no canal at the Sault Ste.

Marie. One propeller, the "Independence," was on Lake Superior, having been dragged on rollers around the Sault. One steamboat, the "Julia Palmer," had, I believe, been brought over the same way. The great North-west was a wilderness. The Chippewa Indians were numerous and unattractive. The change seems the work of enchantment. Your city is one of the most beautiful in the land. Your public squares and parks are the admiration of all visitors. The order and neatness and cleanliness of your city are most remarkable, and make a most favorable impression on the visitor. What shall we say of your charities? Your city well maintains the reputation of your state, and Michigan has long been one of the models in all charitable and correctional works. How do they manage this business in Michigan? has been a frequent inquiry in the Boards of State Charities of other states. Now you have welcomed and handsomely entertained the largest National Conference ever held. I am told between eight and nine thousand delegates has been in attendance from all parts of the United States from Oregon to Porto Rico, and from our neighbors across the water. Your fame and hospitality will be most favorably commented upon in all parts of our land, and we trust the influence of this Conference will be felt throughout all the departments of charitable labor. I cannot refrain from complimenting most highly the admirable discourse to which we listened, on Sabbath afternoon, from the Rt. Rev. Bishop Spaulding. It was a noble, manly, Christian address, a wonderful illustration of the unity of the spirit in the bonds of peace and charity. In my opinion it marks an era in the history of the Christian Church as well as in the Conference of Charities. I am sure that in any unfavorable comment on the tropic, Bishop Spaulding did not include Porto Rico, which is now an integral part of the United States, and whose delegates we have warmly welcomed. And now we must say farewell to you and to each other. There is a tinge of sadness as well as of joy in this meeting. Many, very many, are here; but many are not. Some are resting from their labors and enjoying their reward. Some are yet lingering in the land of Beulah, and already can hear the music of the heavenly choir in their Father's house. But the good work goes on; and, when one drops out, a dozen are ready to take his place. Mr. President, we thank you most heartily for the admirable manner in which you have presided over our deliberations. I trust we may all meet again in another Conference of Charities; but, if not, may the recollection of this meeting and this hour be a most attractive reminiscence of the past and a harbinger of a yet brighter and more glorious future!

The President read a telegram from Mr. Robert W. de Forest, President-elect of the next Conference, saying that, if he could be of service, and it was the unanimous desire, he would accept the honor which had been conferred upon him.

President NICHOLSON.— We are very glad to have this assurance that Mr. de Forest will accept the position. It is a great satisfaction to have such a man as the President of this Conference; and I will ask Friend Devine to take to him this symbol of authority, the gavel, which has hardly been used at this Conference because you have been so good. Let us rise and sing, "Blest be the tie that binds."

After singing the hymn, the Conference adjourned *sine die*.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1902.

ALFRED O. CROZIER, *Treasurer, in account with* THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

1901		*Dr.*		
Oct 1.	To Balance on hand			$115.55
	Cash received from sales of Proceedings		$1,343.43	
	Cash received from advertising		30.00	
	Cash received from membership fees		2,748.33	
	Cash received from Local Committees (Hotels)		525.71	
	Cash received from donations		110.00	
	Cash received from miscellaneous		22.60	4,780.07
				$4,895.62

		Cr.		
	By Cash for publishing Proceedings		$2,034.46	
	Cash paid for publishing *Bulletin*		329.10	
	Cash paid for printing, etc.		291.90	
	Cash paid for postage		387.75	
	Cash paid for Secretary's salary:			
	H. H. Hart, Oct. 1–15, 1901	$20.83		
	Homer Folks, Oct. 15 to Dec. 30, 1901	104.17		
	Joseph P. Byers, Jan. 13, 1902, to Sept. 30, 1902	359.35	484.35	
	Cash paid for Secretary's travelling expenses (Toledo, Dayton, Detroit, New York, and Boston)		56.12	
	Cash paid for clerk hire		674.34	
	Cash paid for reporting and editing		300.00	
	Cash paid for miscellaneous expenses		254.74	$4,818.76
1902				
Sept. 30.	Balance in the treasury			82.86
				$4,895.62

TREASURER'S COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	Year ending Sept. 30, 1900.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1901.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1902.	
RECEIPTS.						
Balance on hand beginning year,		$268.33		$313.28		$115.55
Cash from sales of Proceedings,	$991.25		$989.86		$1,343.43	
Cash from membership fees and subscription to the *Bulletin*	2,905.41		3,120.45		2,749.93	
Cash from advertising			60.00		30.00	
Cash from Local Committees	685.90		800.00		525.71	
Cash from miscellaneous receipts,		4,582.56	115.00	5,085.31	131.00	4,780.07
		$4,850.89		$5,398.59		$4,895.62
DISBURSEMENTS.						
Paid for publishing Proceedings,	$1,971.17		$2,079.63		$2,034.46	
Paid for publishing *Bulletin*	271.32		567.23		329.10	
Paid for printing, etc.	337.98		413.22		291.90	
Paid for postage	257.38		276.66		387.75	
Paid for salaries, etc.	1,422.94		1,734.77		1,514.81*	
Paid for miscellaneous expenses,	276.82	4,537.61	211.53	5,283.04	254.74	4,812.76
Balance on hand, closing year		$313.28		$115.55		$82.86

* Secretary's salary (12 months)	$484.35
Clerk hire	674.34
Secretary's travelling expenses	56.12
Reporting and editing Conference Proceedings	300.00
Total, as above	$1,514.81

Report of copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand Sept. 30, 1902, from General Secretary's books: —

Year.	*Cloth.*	*Paper.*	*In Sheets.*	*Year.*	*Cloth.*	*Paper.*	*In Sheets.*
1874	60			1892	123	258	482
1875	10			1893	21		500
1882	2			1894	392		31
1883	7			1895	307		24
1884	27	99		1896	22		95
1885	17			1897	14		370
1886	5			1898	32		625
1887	25	216		1899	241		660
1888	20	40	180	1900	234		880
1889	294	417		1901	229		675
1890	37	91		Total	2,038	1,175	4,522
1891	166	29					

1876, 1877, 1878, 1879, 1880, and 1881 out of print.

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

N.B.— Members who were in attendance at Detroit are marked.*

ALABAMA.

Birmingham.

Allen, B. M., 1922 Third Ave.

East Lake.

Griffin, C. D., Supt., Ala. Boys' Indus. Sch.

Livingston.

*Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Pres., Ala. Normal College, Livingston Ave.

Mobile.

*Fosdick, Mrs. A. M., Pres., Mobile Female Benev. Soc., 257 Joachim St.
Moses, Rabbi Alfred G., 109 St. Emanuel St.
*Zadek, Mrs. E. O., Vice-Pres., Female Benev. Soc., 155 S. Conception St.

Tuscaloosa.

Searcy, Dr. J. T., Supt., Ala. Hosps. for In-

ALASKA.

Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D.D., L.L.D., Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

CALIFORNIA.

Los Angeles.

Lindley, Dr. Walter, Pres., Bd. of Trustees, Whittier State Sch., 1414 S. Hope St.

Oakland.

Associated Charities, 1265 Franklin St.
*Luce, J. Irving, 1st Asst. Supt., American Home-finding Ass'n, 1605 Broadway.
Taylor, James P., 455 9th St.

Pala.

Golsh, Miss Flora.

Palo Alto.

Camp, William R.

Redlands.

Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities, 601 Commercial St.
Banning, B. R., 305 Larkin St.
Brown, Charlotte B., M.D., 1212 Sutter St.
Bunnell, James S., 49 2d St.
Davis, Horace, 1800 Broadway.
Hallidee, Mrs. A. S., 401 California St.
*Levy, Meyer H., Sec., Eureka Benev. Ass'n, Mt. Zion Hosp., 406 O'Farrell St.
Lewis, Herbert W., Supt., Boys and Girls' Aid Soc., Cor. Baker and Grove Sts.
Peixotto, Miss Jessica, Philanthropy Com., Temple Emanual, 414 Sutter St.
Putnam, Osgood, President, Asso. Char., 1020 Washington St.
Symmes, Frank J., Vice-Pres., San Francisco Settlement Ass'n; Pres., Merchants' Ass'n; Pres., State Conf. of Char., 725 Mission St.

Stanford University.

Smith, Mrs. Mary Roberts, Associate Prof. of Sociology, Leland Stanford, Jr. Univ.

Whittier.

Smith, Sherman, Whittier State Sch.

COLORADO.

Boulder.

Baker, James H.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., Member, Bd. Co. Visitors; Dist. Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc., 2205 12th St.

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Slocum, William F., Pres., Col. College, 24 College Pl.

Denver.

Appel, J. S., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
Baker, Mrs. Martha J. H., 1358 Gilpin St.
Boal, Mrs. George J., 3d Vice-Pres., Colo. Chdn.'s Home Soc. of the Nat. Chdn.'s Home Soc., 1655 Sherman Ave.
Courtney, J. E., M.D., 310 California St.
Decker, Mrs. S. S., Pres., State Bd. Char. and Cor., 1550 Sherman Ave.
Friedmann, Rabbi W. S., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
*George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Sec., Char. Org. Soc., 1420 Champa St.
Lawney, Eleanor, M.D., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
LeFevre, Mrs. O. E., Pres., Denver Orph. Home Ass'n, 1311 York St.
*Lindsey, Ben B., Judge, Juvenile and County Court.
Malone, Rev. T. H., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
Orman, J. B., Governor; Member *ex officio*, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
State Home for Dependent Children, 3233 Bert St.

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Storrs, O. S., Pres., State Bd. Char. and Cor., P.O. Box 478.
Woman's Club of Denver, 1437 Glenarm St.

Golden.

Branson, Dr. Walter W., Supt., State Indus. Sch. for Boys.
Kimball, Hon. G. H., Sec., Bd. of Control, State Indus. Sch. for Boys.

Pueblo.

Adams, Alva.
McDonald, Mrs. W. H., Sec., Asso. Char.; Sec., State Sch. for Deaf and Blind at Colorado Springs, 304 N. Main St.
Olds, Barnard L., Pres., Denver-Eastern Investment Co., 204 Central Blk.

CONNECTICUT.

Cromwell.

Hallock, F. K., M.D., Med. Dir., Cromwell Hall.

Danbury.

Merritt, Chas. H., Chairman, Exec. Com., Danbury Relief Soc.

Deep River.

Spencer, Geo. F., Member, Conn. State Bd. of Char.

Fairfield.

Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield Co. Home for Neg. and Dep. Chdn., Norwalk, and Conn. Chdn's Aid Ass'n, Hartford.

Farmington.

Pope, Miss Theodate.

Hartford.

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Down, Edwin A., M.D., Med. Member, State Bd. Char., 2 State St.
Ferguson, E. J., 123 Vernon St.
Gilbert, B. S., Hartford Hosp.
*Green, David I., Supt., Char. Org. Soc., 57 Trumbull St.
Greene, Col. Jacob L., Dir., Char. Org. Soc., 57 Trumbull St.
*Hall, Miss Mary, Member State Bd. Char., 98 Pratt St.
Hartranft, Prof. Chester D., Pres., Hartford Theol. Sem., 82 Gillett St.
Howe, H. G., M.D., Exec. Com., Hartford Hosp., 137 High St.
Huntington, Rev. J. T., Pres., Conn. Chdn.'s Aid Soc.; Dir., Char. Org. Soc., 17 Clinton St.
Huntington, R. W., Jr.
Merriam, Prof. Alex. R., Hartford Theol. Sem., 314 Collins St.
Page, C. W.
Perkins, Edward C., 73 Grove St.

Lakeville.

Knight, Geo. H., M.D., Supt., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.
Knight, Mrs. Geo. H.

Litchfield.

Buel, John L., M.D.
Woodruff, Geo. M.

Meriden.

Williams, C. M., Supt. Conn. Sch. for Boys.

Middletown.

Atwater, W. O., Prof. Wesleyan Univ.
*Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Asst. Supt. and Visiting Agt. State Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Fairbank, W. G., Supt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
Fisher, Willard, Prof. of Economics and Social Science, Wesleyan Univ.
Noble, Henry S., M.D., Supt., Conn. Hosp. for Insane.
Payne, Edward, Dir., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls, 181 S. Main St.
Whittlesey, H. C., Member, State Bd. Char.

New Britain.

Camp, David N., Pres., Erwin Home, 9 Camp St.
Finch, Alfred S., Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 58 W. Main St.
Platt, F. G., Member, New Britain Char. Org.

New Haven.

Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., Member, State Bd. Char., 307 Crown St.
Brewer, Prof. Wm. H., Pres., State Bd. Health; Mgr., Temporary Home for Neg. Chdn., 418 Orange St.
Brown, Robert, Sec., Yale Univ. Observatory, Observatory Pl.
Corcoran, Rev. John F., Supt. and Treas., St. Francis Orph. Asyl., Whitney Ave.
Farnham, Prof. Henry W., Yale Univ.; Dir., Org. Char. Ass'n., 43 Hillhouse St.
Fisher, Prof. Irving, 460 Prospect St.
Newton, Henry G., Chairman, Bd. of Dir., City Missionary Ass'n, 818 Chapel St.
Porter, Joseph, Chairman, Com., Welcome Hall Mission, 215 Whitney Ave.
Preston, Sherwood O., Agt., Org. Char. Ass'n, 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Chas. A., Dir., Org. Char. Ass'n.
Stokes, Anson Phelps, Jr., Sec., Yale Univ.; Member, Advisory Council, Lowell House; Member, Bd. Dirs. New Haven Org. Char.
Welch, Pierce N.

Norfolk.

Bridgman, H.H., Pres. State Bd. Char.

Norwich.

Gilman, Miss Emily S., Member, United Workers of Norwich; Member, Rocknook Chdn.'s Home Com., 380 Washington St.

Putnam.

Warner, Edgar M.

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Associated Charities, 6 Burlington Arcade.
Leeds, Chas. H., Member, Asso. Char. of Stamford, 10 Willow St.

Suffield.

Fuller, Edward A.

Waterbury.

Hillard, Miss Mary R., St. Margaret's.
*Kellogg, Chas. P., Sec., State Bd. Char.

Westport.

Ruland, F. D., M.D., Med. Supt., Westport Sanitarium.

Wethersfield.

Garvin, Albert, Warden, State Prison.

Winsted.

*Cooke, Hon. Lorrin A.
Gay, Hon. Henry, Pres., Wm. L. Gilbert Home, 157 Prospect St.

DELAWARE.

Marshallton.

Twitchell, H. C., Supt., Ferris Indus. Sch.

Wilmington.

Associated Charities, 602 West St.
Bancroft, Wm. P., Sec., Trustees Del. Hosp.
Gawthrop, Alfred, Ferris Indus. School; Chairman, Administration Com.
Jackson, Mrs. Emma, Supt., Del. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
Jackson, Henry M., Asst. Supt., Del. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Meserve, A. S., Warden, Newcastle Co. Workhouse.
*Meserve, Mrs. A. S.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., Cor. Sec., Asso. Char., 1202 Delaware Ave.

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Washington.

Barlow, Mrs. Kate B., Bd. Chdn.'s Guardians, 1009 O St., N.W.
Barrett, Mrs. Kate Waller, M.D., Gen. Supt., Nat. Florence Crittendon Mission, 218 3d St.
*Blount, I. L., 716 7th St., N.W.
Bradford, Rev. J. H., Vice-Pres., Asso. Char.; Cor. Sec., Boys' and Girls' Nat. Home Employment Ass'n; Exec. Com., Prisoners' Aid Soc., 1714 13th St., N.W.
Butler, Rev. C. H., 1107 11th St., N.W.
Cook, Susan B., Supt., Chdn.'s Temporary Home, 607 Howard Ave.
*Douglass, John W., Agt., Bd. of Chdn's. Guardians, 472 Louisiana Ave.
Downey, W. F., Pres., League of the Good Samaritan, 1013 17th St., N.W.
Dynes, John H., Member, Dist. Com., Asso. Char., 1305 30th St.
Eaton, Gen. John, Del. from Alaska, appointed by Gov. John Brady, The Concord.
Edson, John Joy, Member, Bd. of Char. of Dist. of Col., Wn. L. and Tr. Bldg.
Everman, Mrs. Barton W., 412 T St., N.W.
Foster, Mrs. J. Ellen, Am. Nat. Red Cross, The Portner.
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Hood, Mrs. Mary E., Vice-Pres., Char. Org.; ex-Com'r, Humane Soc.; ex-Com'r, House of Mercy, 1009 O St., N.W.
Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D.D., U. S. Bureau of Education, The Concord.
Janney, B T., Chairman, Bd. Mgrs., Asso. Char.; Chairman, Com. on Char. and Cor., Washington Board of Trade, 1671 31st St.
Joyce, Miss Mary E., Matron, Washington Asylum.
Kibbey, Miss Bessie, 2025 Massachusetts Ave.
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Macfarland, Henry B. F., Pres., Bd. of Com'rs., 1816 F St.
Macfarland, Mrs. Henry B. F., 1816 F St.
Maguire, Rev. Joseph I., Dir., Special Works Conf., St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 811 North Carolina Ave., S.E.
Moore, Frederick L., 1403 F St., N.W.
Neill, Charles, Vice-Pres., Bd. of Char. of Dist. of Col., Catholic Univ.
Pellew, Henry E. 1637 Massachusetts Ave.
Price, Mrs. Jennie H., Solicitor, Florence Crittendon Mission, 218 3rd St.
Richardson, A. R., M.D., Supt., Gov't Hosp. for Insane.
Rube, Miss Amy Jean, Supt., Ref. Sch. for Girls.
Rudolph, Cuno H., Sec., Washington Bd. of Trades Com. on Char. and Cor.; Chairman, Sub-Com. for S. W. Washington for Imp. of the Homes of the Poor.
*Ryan, Miss Amelia A., Vice-Pres., Christ Child Soc., 1101 H St., N.W.
Shallenberger, G. A., Supt., Ref. Sch.
Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Trustee, Nat. Homeo. Hosp., 9th and D Sts.
Sylvester, Richard, Major and Supt., Metropolitan Police, 1223 Roanoke St.
Truesdell, Col. Geo., Wyatt Bldg.
Tupper, J. B. T., Pres., Bd. Chdn.'s Guardians; Member, Bd. Mgrs., Asso. Char.; Member, Bd. Trustees, Indus. Home Sch., 1316 19th.
Ward, Miss Eliza Titus, Member, George Junior Repub. Humane Soc.; Treas., Mary Washington Chap., D. A. R., 5 Grant Pl.
*Weller, Chas. F., Sec., Asso. Char., 811 G St., N.W.
Wilson, Miss B. Mordaunt, 1018 North Carolina Ave., S.E.
*Wilson, Geo. S., Sec., Bd. Char., 464 Louisiana Ave.
Wines, F. H., M.D., Asst. Dir., U. S. Census, 1446 Staughton St.
*Witman, Miss Caroline, Asso. Char., 811 G St., N.W.
Woodward, S. W., Pres., Bd. of Char.; Vice-Pres., Asso. Char., 2015 Wyoming Ave.
Wright, C. D., Com'r, U. S. Dept. of Labor.

FLORIDA.

Miami.

Blackman, Prof. W. F.

GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

*Longino, T. D., M.D., Member, Com. on Hosps. and Char., 61 Park St.
White, W. Woods, College Pk.

ILLINOIS.

Anna.

*Bennett, R. F., M.D., Supt., Hosp. for Insane.

Ashland.

*Glenn, J. A., M.D., Member, Bd. State Com'rs of Pub. Char.

Aurora.

Charity Council of Aurora.

Bloomington.

Bureau of Associated Charities, 320 N. Main St.

Campaign.

Lester, Miss Adelaide, 205 W. Hill St.

Chicago.

Adams, Mrs. Geo. E., 530 Belden Ave.
* Bell, Mrs. Wm. W., Member, Bd. of Mgrs., Woman's Refuge, 3030 Lake Ave.
* Bicknell, Ernest P., Gen. Supt., Chicago Bureau of Char., 79 Dearborn St.
* Boyle, Edward, 218 La Salle St.
* Carman, G. N., Pres., W. S. Dist. Bureau of Char., Lewis Institute.
Danaker, C. D., 1280 Old Col. Bldg.
Doud, Mrs. L. B., Erring Woman's Refuge, 3257 Mich. Ave.
* Fallows, Bishop Samuel, Pres, Bd. of Mgrs., Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac, 967 W. Monroe St.
* Falter, Mrs. D. B., Bureau of Personal Service, 9th Ward, 3425 S. Park Ave.
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Quebec	Francis H. McLean, Montreal.
Mexico	José F. Godoy, Washington, D.C.
Cuba	Jerome B. Clark, Havana.
Porto Rico	B. H. Osterhoudt, San Juan.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

Reports from States.

Homer Folks, 105 E. 22d Street, New York, N.Y., *Chairman, ex officio.*

Charles P. Kellogg.....Waterbury, Conn.
A. W. Clark.....Omaha, Neb.

State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Corrections.

Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore, Md., *Chairman.*

W. P. Lyon.....Madison, Wis.
Prof. Charles P. Neill.....Washington, D.C.
Ernest Lister.....Olympia, Wash.
Rev. James A. Orman, D.D...Nashville, Tenn.
Miss Grace W. Minns.....Boston, Mass.
Leontine Lincoln.....Fall River, Mass.
Hugh F. Fox.....Bayonne, N.J.
S. W. Rosendale.....Albany, N.Y.
A. W. Butler.....Indianapolis, Ind.
B. H. Osterhoudt.....San Juan, Porto Rico

Needy Families in their Homes.

Charles F. Weller, Washington, D.C., *Chairman.*

C. M. Hubbard.....Cincinnati, Ohio
Frank Tucker.....New York, N.Y.
J. M. Hanson.....Kansas City, Mo.
Nathan Bijur.....New York, N.Y.
Bleecker Van Wagenen.....Orange, N.J.
David I. Green.....Hartford, Conn.
Miss Emma Field.....Grand Rapids, Mich.
Miss M. E. Richmond.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Miss Charlotta Goff.....Des Moines, Ia.
Benjamin Pettee.....Boston, Mass.
Francis H. McLean.....Montreal, Can.

Juvenile Delinquents.

James Allison, Cincinnati, Ohio, *Chairman.*

George B. Robinson.....New York, N.Y.
B. L. Olds.....Golden, Col.
Mrs. John B. Elam.....Indianapolis, Ind.
W. C. Kilvington.....Nashville, Tenn.
L. D. Drake.....Boonville, Mo.
Julio San Martin, M.D.....Havana, Cuba
Mornay Williams.....New York, N.Y.
William V. Coffin.....Whittier, Cal.

Destitute and Neglected Children.

C. W. Birtwell, Boston, Mass., *Chairman.*

Timothy D. Hurley.....Chicago, Ill.
Rev. D. J. McMahon.....New York, N.Y.
Miss Elizabeth Kerr.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Jerome B. Clark.....Havana, Cuba
A. H. Graham.....Knightstown, Ind.
W. T. Gardner.....Portland, Ore.
James M. Brown.....Toledo, Ohio
M. T. Park.....Sparta, Wis.
Max Landsberg, Ph.D.....Rochester, N.Y.
Michel Heymann.....New Orleans, La.
Hastings H. Hart.....Chicago, Ill.

The Insane.

Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford, Ill., *Chairman.*

C. B. Burr, M.D.....Flint, Mich.
Samuel E. Smith, M.D.....Richmond, Ind.
Juan M. Pla, M.D.....Vedado, Cuba
John Crownie.....Des Moines, Ia.
George L. Smith.....Nayatt, R.I.
Frederick Peterson, M.D.....New York, N.Y.
Frederick Wilkins.....Viroqua, Wis.
F. B. Gardner.....Brockton, Mass.
H. A. Tomlinson, M.D.....St. Peter, Minn.
Hugh T. Patrick, M.D.....Chicago, Ill.

The Feeble-minded and Epileptics.

A. W. Wilmarth, M.D., Chippewa Falls, Wis., *Chairman.*

W. E. Fernald, M.D.....Waverley, Mass.
Miss Mary E. Perry.....St. Louis, Mo.
Mrs. James B. Harper.....Ft. Wayne, Ind.
Miss Mattie Gundry.....Falls Church, Va.
E. R. Johnstone.....Vineland, N.J.
William P. Spratling, M.D.....Sonyea, N.Y.
J. J. Kelso.....Toronto, Can.
J. M. Murdock, M.D.....Polk, Pa.
George H. Knight, M.D.....Lakeville, Conn.

Hospitals, Dispensaries, and Nursing.

Joseph P. Byers, Columbus, Ohio, *Chairman.*

George S. Wilson.....Washington, D.C.
Mrs. J. L. Houghteling.....Chicago, Ill.
Emilio Martinez, M.D.....Havana, Cuba
Mrs. R. C. Lincoln.....Boston, Mass.
Charlotte B. Brown, M.D...San Francisco, Cal.
R. P. Pratt.....Minneapolis, Minn.
J. W. Brannan, M.D.....New York, N.Y.
L. C. Storrs.....Lansing, Mich.

The Treatment of Criminals.

Hon. J. W. Willis, St. Paul, Minn., *Chairman.*

James E. Heg.....Rahway, N.J.
Michel Heymann.....New Orleans, La.
E. W. Jenks, M.D.....Detroit, Mich.
Miss Julia S. Tutwiler.....Livingston, Ala.
George Vaux, Jr. .....Philadelphia, Pa.
Thomas Sturgis.....New York. N.Y.
James A. Leonard.....Mansfield, Ohio
Henry G. Newton.....New Haven, Conn.
Prof. C. A. Ellwood.....Columbia, Mo.

Neighborhood and Civic Improvements.

Robert W. De Forest, New York, N.Y., *Chairman.*

Miss Ellen H. Bailey.....Boston, Mass.
Prof. Graham Taylor.....Chicago, Ill.
James B. Reynolds.....New York, N.Y.
R. B. Watrous.....Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. Stephen Baldwin.....Detroit, Mich.
Rev. E. Evans-Carrington...Col. Springs, Col.
Mrs. H. E. Hanson.....St. Paul, Minn.
Miss Cornelia Bradford.....Jersey City, N.J.
Rev. F. A. Sumner.....Little Falls, Minn.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

COLORADO.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Act of 1891, approved March 19, 1901.]

Gov. James B. Orman, *ex officio*.....Denver
Mrs. Sarah Platt-Decker.....Denver
O. S. Storrs.....Denver
Dr. Eleanor Lawney.....Denver
Rev. Thomas H. Malone.....Denver
Rabbi William S. Friedman.....Denver
L. R. Ehrich.....Colorado Springs

Officers of the Board.

O. S. Storrs, *President*.....Denver
Dr. Eleanor Lawney, *Vice-President*....Denver
C. L. Stonaker, *Secretary*.....State Capitol, Denver

CONNECTICUT.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

Edwin A. Down, M.D.....Hartford
George F. Spencer.....Deep River
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon.....New Haven
Miss Mary Hall.....Hartford
H. H. Bridgman.....Norfolk
Charles P. Kellogg.....Waterbury

Officers of the Board.

H. H. Bridgman, *President*.....Norfolk
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, *Agent for County Temporary Homes*.....New Haven
Miss Mary Hall, *Agent for County Temporary Homes*.....Hartford
Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary and General Agent*.....Waterbury

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Office, 464 Louisiana Avenue.

[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

S. W. Woodward.....Washington
George William Cook.....Washington
Simon Wolf.....Washington
Dr. Charles P. Neill.....Washington
John Joy Edson.....Washington

Officers of the Board.

S. W. Woodward, *President*.....Washington
Charles P. Neill, *Vice-President*...Washington
George S. Wilson, *Secretary*.....Washington

GEORGIA.

THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed Dec. 21, 1897.]

Joseph S. Turner.....Eatonton Clement A. Evans.....Atlanta
Thomas Eason.....McRae

Officers of the Commission.

Joseph S. Turner, *Chairman*.....Eatonton Jacob C. Moore, *Warden*.....Rome
Goodloe Yancey, *Secretary*.....Athens

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

William Jayne, M.D.....Springfield John Gibbons.....Chicago
Ensley Moore.....Jacksonville A. S. Wright.....Woodstock
James A. Glenn, M.D.....Ashland

Officers of the Board.

William Jayne, *President*.....Springfield J. Mack Tanner, *Secretary*.....Springfield
Frank D. Whipp, *Assistant Secretary*.....Springfield

INDIANA.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed Feb. 28, 1889.]

Timothy Nicholson.....Richmond Margaret F. Peelle.....Indianapolis
Mary A. Spink.....Indianapolis Demarchus C. Brown.....Irvington
William P. Cooper.....Fort Wayne Sidney B. Davis.....Terre Haute

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Winfield T. Durbin, *ex-officio President*.. Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*.....Indianapolis
Indianapolis

IOWA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898.]

L. G. Kinne.....Des Moines John Cownie.....South Amana
G. S. Robinson.....Sioux City

Officers of the Board.

John Cownie, *Chairman*.....Des Moines F. S. Treat, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 9 of the Laws of 1868.]

Henry J. Allen.....Ottawa
Edwin Snyder.....Oskaloosa
R. Vincent.....Washington
G. W. Kanavel.....Sedgwick
John Hannon.....Leavenworth

Officers of the Board.

Henry J. Allen, *President*.....Ottawa
R. Vincent, *Vice-President*.....Washington
G. W. Kanavel, *Treasurer*.....Sedgwick
Edwin Snyder, *Secretary*.....Oskaloosa

MARYLAND.

BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES.

Office, Maryland Telephone Building, Baltimore.

[Established by Act, approved April 11, 1900.]

F. C. Latrobe.....Baltimore
James Bond.....Baltimore
John Lee Carroll.....Ellicott City
Elihu E. Jackson.....Salisbury
Samuel Rosenthal, Jr.....Baltimore

Officers of the Board.

F. C. Latrobe, *President*.....Baltimore
James R. Brewer, *Secretary*.....Baltimore

THE LUNACY COMMISSION.

819 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.

[Established by Chapter 487 of the Laws of 1886.]

John Morris, M.D.....Baltimore
Thomas S. Latimer, M.D.....Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M.D.....Baltimore
Charles W. Wainwright, M.D.....Princess Anne
The Attorney-general, *ex officio*.

Officers of the Commission.

John Morris, M.D., *President*.....Baltimore
George J. Preston, M.D., *Secretary*..Baltimore

MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79 of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24, of Acts of 1898.]

Leontine Lincoln, *Chairman*.....Fall River
Henrietta G. Codman, *Vice-Chairman*.....Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D., LL.D.....Amherst
Laban Pratt.....Boston
Henry S. Nourse.....Lancaster
James M. Pullman, D.D.....Lynn
Frances G. Curtis.....Boston
George W. Johnson.....Brookfield

Officers of the Board.

Joshua F. Lewis, M.D., *Superintendent of State Adult Poor*.....Boston
William P. Derby, M.D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*.....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*.....Boston

STATE BOARD OF INSANITY.

State House, Boston, Mass.

[Established by Chapter 433 of the Laws of 1898, passed October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly, M.D.....Boston
Charles R. Codman.....Barnstable
Albert L. Harwood.....Newton Centre
James B. Ayer, M.D.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

George F. Jelly, M.D., *Chairman*.....Boston
Owen Copp, M.D., *Secretary and Executive Officer*.....Boston

STATE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSIONERS.

State House, Boston.

Frederick G. Pettigrove, *Chairman*.....Boston
Henry Parkman.....Boston
Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Dr. Mary V. O'Callaghan.....Worcester
J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary*.

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

Aaron T. Bliss, Governor, *ex officio*.....Saginaw
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D.D., Grand Rapids
Edward W. Jenks, M.D.....Detroit
Thomas A. Hilton.....Coldwater
Charles W. Light.....Saginaw

Officers of the Board.

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, D.D., *Chairman*.....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storr, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

[Established by Chapter 122, Laws of 1901, approved April 2, 1901.]

Hon. Silas W. Leavett.....Litchfield
Hon. William E. Lee.....Long Prairie
Hon. O. B. Gould.....Winona

Officers of the Board.

Hon. Silas W. Leavett, *Chairman*.....Litchfield
Mr. H. W. Wright, *Secretary*.....

STATE LUNACY COMMISSION.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

Dr. Charles E. Riggs, *Chairman*.....St. Paul
Dr. C. O. Cooley.....Madelia
Dr. W. F. Milligan.....Wabasha

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

Alex. M. Dockery, Governor.....Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry.....St. Louis
Mrs. Julia C. Hurt.....Kansas City
H. E. Robinson.....Maryville
R. M. Abercrombie.....St. Joseph
C. M. Johnson.....St. Charles
F. V. Loos.....Liberty

Officers of the Board.

Alex. M. Dockery, *President ex officio*.....Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry, *Vice-President*..St. Louis
Wesley L. Robertson, *Secretary*.....Gallatin

NEBRASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed Feb. 13, 1877. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1875.]

George D. Follmer.....Lincoln
F. N. Prout.....Lincoln
William Sluefar.....Lincoln
G. W. Marsh.....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

George D. Follmer, *President*.....Lincoln
G. W. March, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

James F. Brennan.....Peterboro
Mrs. Ella L. Follansby.....Exeter
Sherman E. Burroughs.....Manchester
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter.....Concord

Officers of the Board.

Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter, *Chairman*....Concord
W. J. Ahern, *Secretary*.....Concord

NEW JERSEY.

STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

629 Commercial Trust Building, Jersey City.

[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

Hugh F. Fox.....Bayonne
Joseph McCrystal.....Paterson
Frederick G. Burnham.....Morristown
Rev. J. R. Atkinson.....Elizabeth
Katharine E. Abbey.....Mount Holly
Emily E. Williamson.....Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams.....Trenton

Officers of the Board.

Hugh F. Fox, *President*.....Bayonne
Emily E. Williamson, *Treasurer*.....Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*.....Trenton
Seymour H. Stone, *Superintendent*..Jersey City

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William R. Stewart.....New York
Anne G. de Peyster.....New York
Michael J. Scanlan.....New York
Stephen Smith, M.D. .....New York
Edward H. Litchfield.....Brooklyn
John Notman.....Brooklyn
Simon W. Rosendale.....Albany
Newton Aldrich.....Gouverneur
Dennis McCarthy.....Syracuse
Peter Walrath.....Chittenango
Enoch V. Stoddard, M.D. .....Rochester
William H. Gratwick. .....Buffalo

Officers of the Board.

William R. Stewart, *President*.....New York
Enoch Vine Stoddard, M.D., *Vice-President*...Rochester
Robert W. Hebberd, *Secretary* .....Albany
Byron M. Child, *Superintendent of State and Alien Poor*.....Albany
Walter S. Ufford, *Superintendent of Inspection*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Frederick Peterson.....Albany
William L. Parkhurst.....Canandaigua
Daniel N. Lockwood.....Buffalo

Officers of the Commission.

Frederick Peterson, *President*.....Albany
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Raleigh.

Charles Duffy, M.D.....Newbern
Edgar L. Haughton.....Pollocksville
William A. Blair.....Winston
W. F. Craig.....Marion
Wesley N. Jones.....Raleigh

Officers of the Board.

Charles Duffy, M.D., *President*.....Newbern
C. B. Denson, *Secretary*.....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867; amended April 12, 1898.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff.....Mansfield
*William Howard Neff. .....Cincinnati
Martin Dewey Follett.....Marietta
Henry C. Ranney.....Cleveland
William A. Hale.....Dayton
Rutherford Hayes Platt.....Columbus

Officers of the Board.

George K. Nash, Governor, *President ex officio*.....Columbus
Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*.....Mansfield
Joseph Perkins Byers, *Secretary*....Columbus

* *Deceased.*

PENNSYLVANIA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

1225 Sansom Street, Philadelphia.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
William T. Bell.....Mt. Union
Cyrus B. King.....Allegheny
George I. M'Leod.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryan.....Shamokin
A. J. Logan.....Pittsburg
Isaac Johnson.....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle.....Philadelphia

Officers of the Board.

Francis J. Torrance, *President*.....Allegheny
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary*.....Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State House, Providence.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

Col. Frank F. Olney.....Providence
Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George Lewis Smith.....Nayatt
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher.....Woonsocket
John J. Watson, Jr.....Providence
Robert F. Rodman.....Allentown

Officers of the Board.

Col. Frank F. Olney, *Chairman*.....Providence
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*.....Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Secretary's Office, Bridgewater.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

B. M. Lien.....Sioux Falls
L. B. Laughlin.....Bridgewater
J. P. Davis.....Huron
George W. Kingsbury.....Yankton
F. M. Steere.....Wessington Springs

Officers of the Board.

B. M. Lien, *President*.....Sioux Falls
George W. Kingsbury, *Secretary*.....Yankton

TENNESSEE.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

707 Belmont Avenue, Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Gov. Benton McMillin.....Nashville
James A. Orman, M D., D.D.....Nashville
W. R. Cole.....Nashville
W. H. Taylor, M.D.....Newmarket
Hugh W. Tate, M.D.....Bolivar
Marcus Haase, M.D.....Memphis

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Benton McMillin, *President ex officio*.....Nashville
James A. Orman, *Secretary*.....Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

Olympia.

[Established by Laws of 1901, Chapter 119 (H. F. No. 222).]

Ernest Lister.....Olympia Grant Neal.....Olympia
C. S. Reed.....Olympia

Officers of the Board.

Ernest Lister, *Chairman*.....Olympia

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

Wm. P. Lyon.....Madison Nathaniel B. Treat.....Monroe
Herman Grotophorst.....Baraboo Gustav Küstermann.....Green Bay
Andrew G. Nelson.....Waupaca

Officers of the Board.

Wm. P. Lyon, *President*.....Madison Nathaniel B. Treat, *Vice-President*.....Monroe
M. J. Tappins, *Secretary*.....Madison

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

De Forest Richards.....Douglas Fenimore Chatterton.....Rawlins
T. T. Tynan.....Sheridan Le Roy Grant.....Laramie
G. E. Abbott.....Cheyenne

Officers of the Board.

De Forest Richards, *President*.....Douglas T. T. Tynan, *Secretary*.....Sheridan

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